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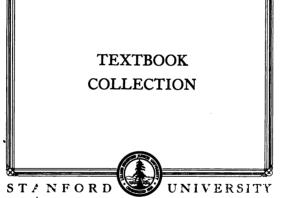
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BY

CHARLES E. BENNETT

PROFESSOR OF LATIN IN CORNELL UNIVERSITY

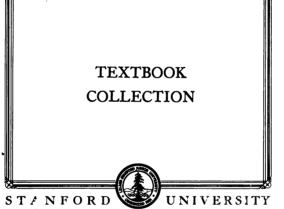
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PREFACE.

THE object of this book is to present the essential facts of Latin grammar in a direct and simple manner, and within the smallest compass consistent with scholarly standards. While intended primarily for the secondary school, it has not neglected the needs of the college student, and aims to furnish such grammatical information as is ordinarily required in undergraduate courses.

The experience of German educators in recent years has tended to restrict the size of school-grammars of Latin, and has demanded an incorporation of the main principles of the language in compact manuals of 250 pages.¹ Within the past decade, several grammars of this scope have appeared which have amply met the exacting demands of the full Gymnasial Latin course,—a period of study representing quite as much reading as that covered by the average American undergraduate.

The publication in this country of a grammar of similar plan and scope seems fully justified at the present time, as all recent editions of classic texts summarize in introductions the special idioms of grammar and style peculiar to individual authors. This makes it feasible to dispense with the enumeration of many minutiae of usage which would otherwise demand consideration in a student's grammar.

In the chapter on Prosody, I have designedly omitted all special treatment of the lyric metres of Horace and Catullus, as

¹ One of the most eminent of living Latinists, Professor Eduard Wölfflin, of Munich, has expressed the opinion that the essentials may be given within even smaller compass than this. See his Preface to the Schmalz-Wagener Lateinische Grammatik, 1801.

well as of the measures of the comic poets. Our standard editions of these authors all give such thorough consideration to versification that repetition in a separate place seems superfluous.

In the matter of 'hidden quantities,' I have conformed to Lewis's Latin Dictionary for Schools, and the same editor's later Elementary Latin Dictionary. In several cases this procedure has involved a sacrifice of convictions as to the actual quantity of vowels; but the advantages of uniformity in our educational practice seemed, for the present at least, to warrant this concession of personal views.

The discussion of inflectional forms and of the development of case and mood constructions has been reserved for the *Appendix* for *Teachers*, where these and some other matters receive full and systematic consideration.

To several of my colleagues, who have generously assisted me with their advice and criticism during the preparation and printing of this book, I desire to offer my sincerest thanks, especially to Professors H. C. Elmer and B. I. Wheeler, of Cornell University, Professor Alfred Gudeman, of the University of Pennsylvania, Professor George L. Hendrickson, of the University of Wisconsin, and Professors Francis W. Kelsey and John C. Rolfe, of the University of Michigan.

C. E. B.

ITHACA, N. Y., Dec. 15, 1894.

PREFACE TO FOURTH EDITION.

In this edition I have marked all long vowels in conformity with the lists contained in my *Appendix for Teachers* (p. 52 ff.). Lewis, whose *Latin Dictionaries* I had originally followed, has meanwhile, in the last edition of the *Elementary Dictionary*, accepted my markings in a majority of the cases wherein I had expressed dissent from him.

C. E. B.

ITHACA, Feb. 10, 1896.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PART I.

2	SUUN.	DS,	ACC.	ENT,	Ųυ	ANT	ITY,	ET	j.		AGE.
The Alphabet											I
Classification of S											I
Sounds of the Le											3
Syllables .											4
Quantity .											4
Accent											5
Vowel Changes											6
Consonant Chang											7
Peculiarities of O	-										7
	Ū	• •									•
			F	ART	r I	I.					
			IN	FLEC	TIOI	NS.					
		СН	APTE	T G	r)aclam	ei am				
		CII	.AI I I	SK 1.	— L	ecters.	ton.				
				A. No	OUNS						
Gender of Nouns											10
Number .											II
Cases											1 I
The Five Declens	sions										I 2
First Declension											13
Second Declension	on		٠,								14
Third Declension	١.		. '								18
Fourth Declension	n										28
Fifth Declension											29
Defective Nouns											30
											•
			В.	ADJ	CTIV	ES.					
Adjectives of the											34
Adjectives of the	Third	Dec	lensio	n.						•	. 3

~	~ <i>,</i> ,	,	~ /		
1	aoi	e o	ナし	onten	rs.

Comparison of Adjectiv	es										PAGE 40
Formation and Compar	ison	of									43
Numerals			•			•	•	•	•	•	45
			<i>C.</i> F	RONC	UNS.						
Personal Pronouns .		-		•	•						48
Reflexive Pronouns .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Possessive Pronouns .		•	•	·	•	•	•	•	•	•	4 9
Demonstrative Pronour			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	50
The Intensive Pronoun		•	·	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	51
The Relative Pronoun.		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	51 51
Interrogative Pronouns			·	•	•	:	:	:	•	•	5º 52
Indefinite Pronouns .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	-
Pronominal Adjectives.			•	•	•	:	•	•	:	:	52 53
	CH.	A D	ΓER :	rt	Comi	arati.	~~				•
Verb-Stems	C112	11			cong	n g u s s	·/•.				
		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	54
The Four Conjugations		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	55
Conjugation of Sum.		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	56
First Conjugation .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	58
Second Conjugation .		•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	62
Third Conjugation .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	66
Fourth Conjugation .		٠.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	70
Verbs in -io of the Thir		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	74
Deponent Verbs		•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	76
Semi-Deponents		•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	78
Periphrastic Conjugatio	n	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	78
Peculiarities of Conjuga Formation of the Verb-	tion	٠.	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	79
						٠.		•		•	80
List of the Most Impor	tant	Ve	rbs wi	th Pri	ncips	ıl Par	ts .	•	•		83
Irregular Verbs			•	•	•			•			95
Defective Verbs			•		•						102
Impersonal Verbs .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	104
			Par	кт]	II.						
			PAR	TICI	ES.						
Adverbs							•	•			106
Prepositions		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	107
iterjectio ns		•	•								108

	PAR	Т	IV.						
wo	RD F	ORI)ITAN	N.					
	I. DEF	RIVA	TIVES.						PAGE
Nouns	_				_				100
Adjectives	•							·	111
Verbs			•		•	·			
Adverbs	•		•	•		•			114
									•
	II. Co	MPC	OUNDS.						
Examples of Compounds .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	115
	PAR	т	V						
	IAN	. 1	٧.			•			
	SYN	TA	X.						
СНА	PTER	T	– Senti	ences.					
Classification of Sentences .			20						117
Form of Interrogative Sentence	·es	:	•	•	•	•	•	•	117
-			•	•	·	•	•	•	119
Simple and Compound Senten			•	•	•	·	•	•	119
-				•	•	·	•	•	9
CHAPTE	R II	– S	yntax	of N	ouns.				
Subject									I 20
Predicate Nouns	•							•	120
Appositives	•		•	•	•		•		121
The Nominative	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	I 22
The Accusative	•			•	•	•	•		122
The Dative	•		•	•	•	•			129
The Genitive	•	•	•		•	•		•	I 34
The Ablative	•	•	•	•	•				142
The Locative	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	152
CHAPTER	III. —	- Sy	ntax o	f Ad	jectiv	es.			
Agreement of Adjectives .									153
Adjectives used Substantively				•	·				154
Adjectives with the Force of A			•	·	·				126
Comparatives and Superlatives							٠.		. 156
Other Peculianities	•		•	`.	٠.	٠,	•		. 156

Table of Contents.

vii

	CHAPTE	R	IV. –	– Syn	tax o	f Pro	noun	s.			2462
Personal Pronoun											PAGE I57
Possessive Pronou											157
Reflexive Pronour			·								158
Reciprocal Prono			•				•				159
Demonstrative Pr											159
Relative Pronouns											161
Indefinite Pronou											163
Pronominal Adject											164
•											
	СНАР	TFI	p 17	_ C	untar	of L	- - -				
		1151		_ 5)	mux	oj r	E7 U3.				_
Agreement of Ver		•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	165
		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	167
Tenses		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	167
Of the Indicat		•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	167
Of the Subjun		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Of the Infiniti		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	174
Moods .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	176
In Independe	nt Sentenc	es	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	176
Volitive Su			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	176
Optative S	ubjunctive	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	178
Optative S Potential S	Subjunctive	•	•	•	•	•	•	. •	•	•	179
Imperative	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	180
In Dependent			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	181
Clauses of	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	181
Clauses of		istic			•	•	•	•	•	•	182
Clauses of		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Causal Cla		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	185
Temporal		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	187
	aced by Pa	stqı	am,	Ut, U	Ibi, et	c	•	•		•	187
Cum-C		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	188
Introdu	aced by A	nteq	uam:	and F	Priusq	u am	•	•	•	•	190
	aced by D					•	•	•	•	•	191
Substantiv					•	٠	•	•	•		192
	ped from				•		•	•		•	192
	ped from		Optat	ive	•	•	•	•	•	•	194
	ult .				•		•	•	•	•	195
	iõn dubitõ,				•	•	•	•		•	
	uced by Q			•	•	•	•	•		•	196
	t Question		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	197
Conditiona			•		:		•	•	•		198
Use of Sz.	Nisi. Sīn										202

Conditional Clauses of Comparison Concessive Clauses Adversative Clauses with Quamvis, Quamquam, etc. Clauses of Wish and Proviso Relative Clauses Indirect Discourse Moods in Indirect Discourse Tenses in Indirect Discourse Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse Implied Indirect Discourse Subjunctive by Attraction Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb Infinitive Participles Gerund Supine CHAPTER VI.—Particles. Coördinate Conjunctions Adverbs CHAPTER VII.—Word-Order and Sentence-Structure. Word-Order	Auses Calcal Ca	Concessi Adversa Clauses Relative Indirect Moo Tens Cond Implied Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund .	tive Clautive Clause Clause Discouds in Inditectional Indirective by active F	uses uses uses uses urse udire dire Sent et Di Attra	with Proct Dict Dictences	. Qua viso 	mvīs, se se ndirec	Quan	nqua:	m, etc			
Concessive Clauses Adversative Clauses with Quamvis, Quamquam, etc. Clauses of Wish and Proviso Relative Clauses Indirect Discourse Indirect Discourse Tenses in Indirect Discourse Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse Implied Indirect Discourse Subjunctive by Attraction Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb Infinitive Participles Gerund Supine CHAPTER VI.—Particles. Coördinate Conjunctions Adverbs CHAPTER VII.—Word-Order and Sentence-Structure. Word-Order	Auses Calcal Ca	Concessi Adversa Clauses Relative Indirect Moo Tens Cond Implied Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund .	tive Clautive Clause Clause Discouds in Inditectional Indirective by active F	uses uses uses uses urse udire dire Sent et Di Attra	with Proct Dict Dictences	. Qua viso 	mvīs, se se ndirec	Quan	nqua:	m, etc			
Adversative Clauses with Quamvis, Quamquam, etc. Clauses of Wish and Proviso Relative Clauses Indirect Discourse Moods in Indirect Discourse Tenses in Indirect Discourse Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse Implied Indirect Discourse Subjunctive by Attraction Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb Infinitive Participles Gerund Supine CHAPTER VI. — Particles. Coördinate Conjunctions Adverbs CHAPTER VII. — Word-Order and Sentence-Structure. Word-Order	lauses with Quamvis, Quamquam, etc	Adversa Clauses Relative Indirect Moo Tens Cond Implied Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund	tive Clause Of Wish Clause Discouds in Ir litional Indirective by cetive F	andire ndire Sent Sent Attra	with Pro ct Di ct Di cence scour	viso	mvīs, se se ndirec	Quan	nqua:		•		
Clauses of Wish and Proviso Relative Clauses Indirect Discourse Moods in Indirect Discourse Tenses in Indirect Discourse Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse Implied Indirect Discourse Subjunctive by Attraction Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb Infinitive Participles Gerund Supine CHAPTER VI.—Particles. Coördinate Conjunctions Adverbs CHAPTER VII.—Word-Order and Sentence-Structure. Word-Order	sh and Proviso	Clauses Relative Indirect Moor Tens Cond Implied Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund .	of Wish Clause Discouds in Ir les in Ir litional Indirective by active F	n and s s rse ndire ndire Sent ct Di Attra	ct Di ct Di ct Di cence scouraction	viso . iscour iscour is in I rse n .	se se ndirec		•		•	•	
Relative Clauses Indirect Discourse Moods in Indirect Discourse Tenses in Indirect Discourse Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse Implied Indirect Discourse Subjunctive by Attraction Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb Infinitive Participles Gerund Supine CHAPTER VI.—Particles. Coördinate Conjunctions Adverbs CHAPTER VII.—Word-Order and Sentence-Structure. Word-Order	See	Relative Indirect Moo Tens Cond Implied Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund .	Clause Discou ds in Ir les in Ir litional Indirective by ective F	es arse adire adire Sent ct Di Attra forms	ct Ditences	iscour iscour s in I rse n .	se se ndired		•	•	•	•	
Indirect Discourse Moods in Indirect Discourse Tenses in Indirect Discourse Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse Implied Indirect Discourse Subjunctive by Attraction Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb Infinitive Participles Gerund Supine CHAPTER VI.—Particles. Coördinate Conjunctions Adverbs CHAPTER VII.—Word-Order and Sentence-Structure. Word-Order	Durse	Indirect Moo Tens Cond Implied Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund .	Discouds in Ir des in Ir ditional Indirective by ective F	nrse ndire ndire Sent et Di Attra	ct Dict Dictence scoulaction of the	iscour iscour is in I rse n .	se se ndired				•	•	•
Moods in Indirect Discourse Tenses in Indirect Discourse Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse Implied Indirect Discourse Subjunctive by Attraction Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb Infinitive Participles Gerund Supine CHAPTER VI.—Particles. Coördinate Conjunctions Adverbs CHAPTER VII.—Word-Order and Sentence-Structure. Word-Order	Indirect Discourse	Moo Tens Cond Implied Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund .	ds in Ir les in Ir ditional Indirec- tive by ective F	ndire ndire Sent ct Di Attra forms	ct Dience scoulaction of the	iscour iscour is in I rse n .	se se ndired				•	•	•
Tenses in Indirect Discourse Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse Implied Indirect Discourse Subjunctive by Attraction Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb Infinitive Participles Gerund Supine CHAPTER VI.—Particles. CHAPTER VI.—Particles. CHAPTER VII.—Word-Order and Sentence-Structure. Word-Order	Indirect Discourse	Tens Cond Implied Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund .	es in Inditional Indirective by ective F	ndire Sent et Di Attra orms	ct Di tence scour action of t	iscour s in I rse n .	se ndired				•	•	
Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse		Cond Implied Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund .	litional Indirective by ective F	Sent et Di Attra orms	scour action of t	s in I rse n .	ndired	ct Dis	cours	se .	•	•	:
Implied Indirect Discourse	ect Discourse 2 Attraction 2 Forms of the Verb 2 <	Implied Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund .	Indirective by ctive F	et Di Attra orms	scour action of t	rse n .		ct Dis	cours	se .	•	•	
Subjunctive by Attraction	y Attraction 2 Forms of the Verb 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . .	Subjunct Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund .	tive by ective F	Attra orms	action	n.	•	•					
Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb Infinitive	Forms of the Verb	Noun and Adje Infinitive Participles Gerund.	ctive F	orms	of t					•	•	•	
Infinitive	CHAPTER VI.—Particles. ions	Infinitive Participles Gerund .	•			he Ve		•					
Participles Gerund Gerund Supine CHAPTER VI.—Particles. Coördinate Conjunctions Adverbs CHAPTER VII.—Word-Order and Sentence-Structure. Word-Order	CHAPTER VI. — Particles. ions	Participles Gerund .		•			rb						
Gerund	CHAPTER VI.—Particles. ions	Gerund .	•		•	•	•		•				
CHAPTER VI. — Particles. Coördinate Conjunctions	CHAPTER VI.—Particles. ions			•									
CHAPTER VI. — Particles. Coördinate Conjunctions	CHAPTER VI. — Particles. ions	Supine .	•										
Coördinate Conjunctions	Ons												
Word-Order			-		•		:		•	•		:	
	.,	CHA	PTER	VII.	_ I	Word-	Order	r ana	! Sen	tence-	Struc	ture.	
	.,	Word-Order											
Sentence-Structure	APTER VIII. — Hints on Latin Style.	Sentence-Struc	ture	٠.	•	•		•		•	•	•	•
CHAPTER VIII. — Hints on Latin Style.			СНА	PTE	R V	III	– Hir	its on	Lat	in St	yle.		
Nouns		Nouns .											
Adjectives		Adjectives .	•										
Pronouns		Pronouns .											
Verbs		Verbs	•										
verbs		The Cases .						•					
Verbe			•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•	•
		The Cases		•	•	•	•	•	•				

Table of Contents.

x

	SUPPLEMENTS	TO	THE	GR.	AMM.	AR.		PAGI
I.	Roman Calendar				•			247
II.	Abbreviations of Proper Names							249
III.	Figures of Syntax and Rhetoric							240

PART I.

SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

THE ALPHABET.

- 1. The Latin Alphabet is the same as the English, except that the Latin has no w.
- I. K occurs only in *Kalendae* and a few other words; y and z were introduced from the Greek about 50 B.C., and occur only in foreign words chiefly Greek.
- 2. With the Romans, who regularly employed only capitals, I served both as vowel and consonant; so also V. For us, however, it is more convenient to distinguish the vowel and consonant sounds, and to write i and v for the former, v for the latter. Yet some scholars prefer to employ v and v in the function of consonants as well as vowels.

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS.

- 2. I. The Vowels are a, e, i, o, u, y. The other letters are Consonants. The Diphthongs are ae, oe, ei, au, eu, ui.
- 2. Consonants are further subdivided into Mutes, Liquids, Nasals, and Spirants.
- 3. The Mutes are p, t, c, k, q; b, d, g; ph, th, ch. Of these,
 - a) p, t, c, k, q are voiceless, i.e. sounded without voice or vibration of the vocal chords.
 - b) b, d, g are voiced,² i.e. sounded with vibration of the vocal chords.

¹ For 'voiceless,' 'surd,' 'hard,' or 'tenuis' are sometimes used.

² For 'voiced,' 'sonant,' 'soft,' or 'media' are sometimes used.

- c) ph, th, ch are aspirates. These are confined almost exclusively to words derived from the Greek, and were equivalent to p + h, t + h, c + h, i.e. to the corresponding voiceless mutes with a following breath, as in Eng. loop-hole, hot-house, block-house.
- 4. The Mutes admit of classification also as

Labials, p, b, ph.

Dentals (or Linguals), t, d, th.

Gutturals (or Palatals), c, k, q, g, ch.

- 5. The Liquids are 1, r. These sounds were voiced.
- 6. The Nasals are m, n. These were voiced. Besides its ordinary sound, n, when followed by a palatal mute, also had another sound, that of ng in sing, the so-called n adulterinum; as, —

anceps, double, pronounced angceps.

- 7. The Spirants (sometimes called Fricatives) are 1, s, h. These were voiceless.
 - 8. The Semivowels are j and v. These were voiced.
- 9. Double Consonants are **x** and **z**. Of these, **x** was equivalent to **cs**, while the equivalence of **z** is uncertain. See § 3. 3.
- 10. The following table will indicate the relations of the consonant sounds:—

Mutes,	Voiceless. p, t, c, k, q,	Voiced. b, d, s,	Aspirates. ph, th, oh,	(Labials). (Dentals). (Gutturals).
Liquids,		1, r,		
Nasals,		m, n,		
Spirants	f, s, h,			(Labial). (Dental). (Guttural).
Semivowels,		j, v .		(

a. The Double Consonants, x and z, being compound sounds, do not admit of classification in the above table.

SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

3. The following pronunciation (often called Roman) is substantially that employed by the Romans at the height of their civilization; *i.e.* roughly, from 50 B.C. to 50 A.D.

I. Vowels.

```
ā as in father;
ā as in the first syllable of ahd;
ā as in they;
ā as in met;
ā as in machine;
ā as in pin;
ā as in note;
ā as in obey, melody;
ā as in rude;
ā as in put;
y like French u, German ü.
```

2. Diphthongs.

```
ae like ai in aisle;
oe like oi in oil;
ei as in rein;
au like ow in how;

eu with its two elements, ĕ and ŭ, pronounced in rapid succession;
ui occurs almost exclusively in cui and huic. These words are pronounced as though written kwee and wheek.
```

3. Consonants.

- b, d, f, h, k, 1, m, n, p, qu are pronounced as in English, except that bs, bt are pronounced ps, pt.
- c is always pronounced as k.
- t is always a plain t, never with the sound of sh as in Eng. oration.
- g always as in get; when ngu precedes a vowel, gu has the sound of gw, as in anguis, languidus.
- j has the sound of y as in yet.
- r was probably slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue.
- s always voiceless as in sin; in suadeo, suavis, suesco, and in compounds and derivatives of these words, su has the sound of sw.
- v like w.
- **x** always like ks; never like Eng. gz or z.
- **z** uncertain in sound; possibly like Eng. zd, possibly like z. The latter sound is recommended.
- The aspirates ph, ch, th were pronounced very nearly like our stressed Eng. p, c, t—so nearly so, that, for practical purposes, the latter sounds suffice.
- Doubled letters, like 11, mm, tt, etc., should be so pronounced that both members of the combination are distinctly articulated.

SYLLABLES.

4. There are as many syllables in a Latin word as there are separate vowels and diphthongs.

In the division of words into syllables, -

- A single consonant is joined to the following vowel; as, vo-lat, ge-rit.
- 2. Doubled consonants, like tt, ss, etc., are always separated; as, vit-ta, mis-sus.
- 3. In case of other combinations of consonants, such as can stand at the beginning of a word are joined to the following vowel; as, ma-gi-strī, dī-gnus, tē-xī.
- 4. But compounds are separated into their component parts; as, per-it, ab-rādit.

QUANTITY.

5. A. Quantity of Vowels.

A vowel is *long* or *short* according to the length of time required for its pronunciation. No absolute rule can be given for determining the quantity of Latin vowels. This knowledge must be gained, in large measure, by experience; but the following principles are of aid:—

I. A vowel is long,1-

- a) before nf, ns, and before gn in nouns and adjectives in -gnus, -gna, -gnum; as, Infāns, dīgnus, sīgnum.
- b) when the result of contraction; as, nīlum for nihilum.
- c) before j; as, hūjus.

2. A vowel is short, -

- a) before nt, nd; as, amant, amandus. A few rare exceptions occur in cases of compounds whose first member has a long vowel; as, nondum (non dum).
- b) before another vowel, or h; as, meus, trahō. Some exceptions occur, chiefly in proper names derived from the Greek; as, Aenēās.

NOTE.—Occasionally we meet with vowels that are sometimes long, sometimes short. Such vowels are called *common*. The variation appears only in poetry. Examples are the first vowel in Diāna, ŏhē.

In this book, long vowels are indicated by a horizontal line above them; as, **E**, **I**, **O**, etc. Vowels not thus marked are short. Occasionally a curve is set above short vowels; as, **E**, **U**.

B. Quantity of Syllables.

Syllables are distinguished as *long* or *short* according to the length of time required for their pronunciation. Their quantity is governed by the following principles:—

I. A syllable is long,1-

- a) if it contains a long vowel; as, mater, magnus, dlus.
- b) if it contains a diphthong; as, causae, foedus.
- c) if it contains a short vowel followed by x, z, or any two consonants (except a mute with 1 or r); as, axis, gaza, restō.
- 2. A syllable is short, if it contains a short vowel followed by a vowel or by a single consonant; as, mea, amat.
- 3. Sometimes a syllable varies in quantity, vis. when its vowel is short and is followed by a mute with 1 or r, i.e. by pl, ol, tl; pr, or, tr, etc.; as, ägrI, volucris.² Such syllables are called common. In prose they were regularly short, but in verse they might be treated as long at the option of the poet.

Note. — These distinctions of *long* and *short* are not arbitrary and artificial, but are purely natural. Thus, a syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants, as ng, is long, because such a syllable requires *more time* for its pronunciation; while a syllable containing a short vowel followed by one consonant is short, because it takes *less time* to pronounce it. In case of the common syllables, the mute and the liquid blend so easily as to produce a combination which takes scarcely more time than a single consonant. Yet by separating the two elements (as ag-rī) the poets were able to use such syllables as long.

ACCENT.

- 6. I. Words of two syllables are accented upon the first; as, tégit, mốrem.
- 2. Words of more than two syllables are accented upon the penult (next to the last) if that is a long syllable, otherwise upon the antepenult (second from the last); as, amávī, amántis, míserum.
- 3. The enclitics -que, -ne, -ve, -ce, -met, -dum always throw an accent back upon the preceding syllable, when the simple word is accented on the antepenult; as, miseráque, hominéque.
- 4. Sometimes the final -e of -ne and -ce disappears, but without affecting the accent; as, tantón, istíc, illúc, vidén (for vidésne).

¹ To avoid confusion, the quantity of syllables is not indicated by any sign,

² But if the 1 or r introduces the second part of a compound, the preceding syllable is always long; as, abrumpō.

- 5. In utrăque, each, and plērăque, most, -que is not properly an enclitic; yet these words accent the penult, owing to the influence of their other cases,—utérque, utrúmque, plērúmque.
- 6. But in other words, -que does not throw back an accent unless it is a true enclitic, meaning and. Thus, regularly, dénique, úndique, útique, ítaque; but if itaque means and ... so (-que being enclitic), it is accented itáque.

VOWEL CHANGES.1

- 7. I. In Compounds,
 - a) è before a single consonant becomes I; as,—
 colligō for con-legō.
 - b) ă before a single consonant becomes 1; as, adigō for ad-agō.
 - c) a before two consonants becomes e; as,—
 expers for ex-pars.
 - d) ae becomes I; as,—
 conquirō for con-quaerō
 - au becomes ū, sometimes ō; as,—
 conclūdō for con-claudō;
 explōdō for ex-plaudō.
- 2. Contraction. Concurrent vowels were frequently contracted into one long vowel. The first of the two vowels regularly prevailed; as,—

```
trēs for tre-es; cōpia for co-opia;
mālō for ma(v)elō; cōgō for co-agō;
amāstī for amā(v)istī; cōmō for co-emō;
dēbeō for dē(h)abeō; jūnior for ju(v)enior.
nīl for nihil;
```

3. Parasitic Vowels. In the environment of liquids and nasals a parasitic vowel sometimes develops; as,—

vinculum for earlier vinclum.

So perfculum, saeculum.

Syncope. Sometimes a vowel drops out by syncope; as,—
 ārdor for āridor (cf. āridus);
 valdē for validē (cf. validus).

¹ Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.

CONSONANT CHANGES.1

- Rhotacism. An original s between vowels became r; as.—
 arbōs, Gen. arboris (for arbosis);
 genus, Gen. generis (for genesis);
 dirimō (for dis-emō).
- 2. dt, tt, ts each give s or ss; as,—

 pēnsum for pend-tum;

 versum for vert-tum;

 mīles for mīlet-s;

 sessus for sedtus;

 passus for pattus.
- 3. Final consonants were often omitted; as,—

cor for cord;

- 4. Assimilation of Consonants. Consonants are often assimilated to a following sound. Thus: accurrō (adc-); aggerō (adg-); asserō (ads-); allātus (adl-); apportō (adp-); attulī (adt-); arrīdeō (adr-); afferō (adf-); occurrō (obc-); suppōnō (subp-); offerō (obf-); corruō (comr-); collātus (coml-); etc.
- 5. Partial Assimilation. Sometimes the assimilation is only partial. Thus:
 - a) b before s or t becomes p; as,—scrīpsī (scrīb-sī), scrīptum (scrīb-tum).
 - b) g before s or t becomes c; as,—āctus (āg-tus).
 - c) m before a dental or guttural becomes n; as,—
 eundem (eum-dem); princeps (prim-ceps).

PECULIARITIES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

- 9. Many words have variable orthography.
- Sometimes the different forms belong to different periods of the language. Thus, quom, voltus, volnus, volt, etc., were the prevailing

¹ Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.

forms almost down to the Augustan Age; after that, cum, vultus, vulnus, vult, etc. So optumus, māxumus, lubet, lubīdō, etc., down to about the same era; later, optimus, māximus, libet, libīdō, etc.

2. In some words the orthography varies at one and the same period of the language. Examples are exspectō, expectō; exsistō, existō; epistula, epistola; adulēscēns, adolēscēns; paulus, paulus; cottīdiē, cotīdiē; and, particularly, prepositional compounds, which, even in those cases where actual assimilation took place in the spoken language (§ 8. 4), often made a concession to the etymology in the spelling; as,—

ad-gerō or aggerō; ad-serō or asserō; ad-liciō or alliciō; in-lātus or illātus; ad-rogāns or arrogāns; sub-moveō or summoveō; and many others.

- 3. Compounds of jaciō were usually written &iciō, d&iciō, adiciō, obiciō, etc., but were probably pronounced as though written adjiciō, objiciō, etc.
- 4. Adjectives and nouns in -quus, -quum; -vus, -vum; -uus, -uum preserved the earlier forms in -quos, -quom; -vos, -vom; -uos, -uom, down through the Ciceronian age; as, antīquos, antīquom; saevos; perpetuos; equos; servos. Similarly verbs in the 3d plural present indicative exhibit the terminations -quont, -quontur; -vont, -vontur; -uont, -uontur, for the same period; as, relinquont, loquontur; vīvont, metuont.

The older spelling, while generally followed in editions of Plautus and Terence, has not yet been adopted in our prose texts.

PART II.

INFLECTIONS.

- 10. The Parts of Speech in Latin are the same as in English, viz. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections; but the Latin has no article.
- 11. Of these eight parts of speech the first four are capable of Inflection, i.e. of undergoing change of form to express modifications of meaning. In case of Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns, this process is called Declension; in case of Verbs, Conjugation.

CHAPTER I. — Declension.

A. NOUNS.

- 12. A Noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or quality; as, Caesar, Caesar; Rōma, Rome; penna, feather; virtūs, courage.
- 1. Nouns are either Proper or Common. Proper nouns are permanent names of persons or places; as, Caesar, Rōma. Other nouns are Common; as, penna, virtūs.
 - 2. Nouns are also distinguished as Concrete or Abstract.
 - a) Concrete nouns are those which designate individual objects; as, mons, mountain; pes, foot; dies, day; mens, mind.

Under concrete nouns are included, also, collective nouns; as, legio, legion; comitatus, retinue.

 b) Abstract nouns designate qualities; as, constantia, steadfastness; paupertās, poverty.

GENDER OF NOUNS.

13. There are three Genders, — Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter. Gender in Latin is either natural or grammatical.

Natural Gender.

- 14. The gender of nouns is natural when it is based upon sex. Natural gender is confined entirely to names of persons; and these are—
 - Masculine, if they denote males; as, —
 nauta, sailor; agricola, farmer.
 - 2. Feminine, if they denote females; as, mater, mother; rēgīna, queen.

Grammatical Gender.

15. Grammatical gender is determined not by sex, but by the general signification of the word, or the ending of its Nominative Singular. By grammatical gender, nouns denoting things or qualities are often Masculine or Feminine, simply by virtue of their signification or the ending of the Nominative Singular. The following are the general principles for determining grammatical gender:—

A. Gender determined by Signification.

1. Names of Rivers, Winds, and Months are Masculine; as,—

Sequana, Seine; Eurus, east wind; Aprīlis, April.

2. Names of *Trees*, and such names of *Countries*, *Towns*, and *Islands* as end in -us, are Feminine; as, — *querous*, oak; *Pontus*, *Pontus*; *Corinthus*, *Corinth*; *Rhodus*, *Rhodes*.

Other names of countries, towns, and islands follow the gender of their endings (see B, below); as,—

Delphī, m.; Leuctra, n.; Latium, n.; Tībur, n.; Carthāgō, f.

3. Indeclinable nouns are Neuter; as, — nihil, nothing; nefās, wrong.

NOTE. — Exceptions to the above principles sometimes occur; as, Allia (the river), f.

B. Gender determined by Ending of Nominative Singular.

The gender of other nouns is determined by the ending of the Nominative Singular.¹

NOTE I.— Common Gender. Certain nouns are sometimes Masculine, sometimes Feminine. Thus, sacerdos may mean either priest or priestess, and is Masculine or Feminine accordingly. So also cīvis, citizen; parēns, parent; etc. The gender of such nouns is said to be common.

NOTE 2.— Names of animals usually have grammatical gender, according to the ending of the Nominative Singular, but the one form may designate either the male or female; as, anser, m., goose or gander. So vulpes, f., fox; aquila, f., eagle.

NUMBER.

16. The Latin has two Numbers,—the Singular and Plural. The Singular denotes one object; the Plural, more than one.

CASES.

17. There are six Cases in Latin:—

Nominative, Case of Subject; **Genitive**, Objective with *of*;

Dative, Objective with *to* or *for*; **Accusative**, Case of Direct Object;

Vocative Case of Address:

Vocative, Case of Address;

Ablative, Objective with by, from, in, with.

¹ The great majority of all Latin nouns come under this category. The principles for determining their gender are given under the separate declensions.

- 1. LOCATIVE. Vestiges of another case, the **Locative** (denoting place where), occur in names of towns and in a few other words.
- 2. OBLIQUE CASES. The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called Oblique Cases.
- 3. Stem and Case-Endings. The different cases are formed by appending certain case-endings to a fundamental part called the Stem.¹ Thus, portam (Accusative Singular) is formed by adding the case-ending -m to the stem porta-. But in most cases the final vowel of the stem has coalesced so closely with the actual case-ending that the latter has become more or less obscured. The apparent case-ending thus resulting is called a termination.

THE FIVE DECLENSIONS.

18. There are five Declensions in Latin, distinguished from each other by the final letter of the Stem, and also by the Termination of the Genitive Singular, as follows:—

Declension.	FINAL LETTER OF STEM.	GEN. TERMINATION.
First	ā	-ae
Second	ŏ	-T
Third) I Some consonant	-ĭs
Fourth	ŭ	-üs
Fifth	ē	- ĕ ī

Cases alike in Form.

- 19. 1. The Vocative is regularly like the Nominative, except in the Singular of nouns in -us of the Second Declension.
 - 2. The Dative and Ablative Plural are always alike.
- 3. In Neuters the Accusative and Nominative are always alike, and in the Plural end in -ă.
- 4. In the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Declensions, the Accusative Plural is regularly like the Nominative.

¹ The Stem is often derived from a more primitive form, called the Root. Thus, the stem porta- goes back to the root per-, por-. Roots are mono-syllabic. The addition made to a root to form a stem is called a Suffix. Thus in porta- the suffix is -ta-.

FIRST DECLENSION.

ā-Stems.

20. Pure Latin nouns of the First Declension regularly end, in the Nominative Singular, in -x, weakened from -x, and are of the Feminine Gender. They are declined as follows:—

Porta, gate; stem, portā-.

		SINGULAR.	
C	ASES.	Meanings.	TERMINATIONS
Nom.	porta `	a gate (as subject)	-ă
Gen.	portae	of a gate	-a.e
Dat.	portae	to or for a gate	-a.e
Acc.	portam.	a gate (as object)	-am
Voc.	porta.	O gate!	-ă
Abl.	portā	with, by, from, in a gate	-ā
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	portae	gates (as subject)	-ae
Gen.	portārum	of gates	-ārum
Dat.	port īs	to or for gates	-Is
Acc.	portās	gates (as object)	-ās
Voc.	portae	O gates!	-ae
Abl.	port īs	with, by, from, in gates	-Is

1. The Latin has no article, and porta may mean either a gate or the gate; and in the Plural, gates or the gates.

Peculiarities of Nouns of the First Declension.

- 21. I. EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER. Nouns denoting males are Masculine; as, nauta, sailor; agricola, farmer; also Hadria, Adriatic Sea.
 - 2. Rare Case-Endings,
 - a) An old form of the Genitive Singular in -ās is preserved in the combination pater familiās, father of a family; also in māter familiās, fīlius familiās, fīlia familiās. But the regular form of the Genitive in -ae is also admissible in these expressions; as, pater familiae.
 - b) In poetry a Genitive in -aī also occurs; as, aulaī.

- c) The Locative Singular ends in -ae; as, Romae, at Rome.
- a) A Genitive Plural in -um instead of -ārum sometimes occurs; as, Dardanidum instead of Dardanidārum. This termination -um is not a contraction of -ārum, but represents an entirely different case-ending.
- e) Besides the regular ending -Is, we find also -ābus in the Dative and Ablative Plural of dea, goddess, and fīlia, daughter, especially when it is important to distinguish these nouns from the corresponding forms of deus, god, and fīlius, son. A few other words sometimes have the same peculiarity; as, lībertābus (from līberta, freedwoman), equābus (mares), to avoid confusion with lībertīs (from lībertus, freedman) and equīs (from equus, horse).

Greek Nouns.

22. These end in -5 (Feminine); -4s and -5s (Masculine). In the Plural they are declined like regular Latin nouns of the First Declension. In the Singular they are declined as follows:—

Arc	h iās , <i>Archias</i> . 🗆	Epitomē, <i>epitome</i> .	Comētēs, <i>comet</i> .
Nom.	Archi ās	epitom ē	comēt ēs
Gen.	Archiae	epitom ēs	comēt ae
Dat.	Archi ae	epitom ae	comēta e
Acc.	Archiam (or -ā	n) epitom ēn	comēt ēn
Voc.	Archi ā	epitom ē	comēt ē (or - ă)
Abl.	Archi ā	epitom ē	comēt ē (or -ā)

- 1. But most Greek nouns in -ē become regular Latin nouns in -a, and are declined like porta; as, grammatica, grammar; mūsica, music; rhētorica, rhetoric.
 - 2. Some other peculiarities occur, especially in poetry.

SECOND DECLENSION.

ŏ-Stems.

23. Pure Latin nouns of the Second Declension end in -us, -er, -ir, Masculine; -um, Neuter. Originally -us in the Nominative of the Masculines was -os, and -um of the Neuters -om. So also in the Accusative.

Nouns in -us and -um are declined as follows: -

	Hortus, garden; stem, hortŏ		Bellum, stem, be	•
		SINGULAR	t.	
		TERMINATION.		TERMINATION.
Nom.	hortus	-us	b ellum	-um
Gen.	hort ī	-I	bell ī	-1
Dat.	hort ō	-ō	bell ö	-ō
Acc.	hortum.	-um	b ellum	-u m
Voc.	horte	-е	bell um	-um
Abl.	hort ō	-ō	bell ō	-ō
		PLURAL	•	
Nom.	hort ī	-1	bell a	-a.
Gen.	hort örum	-ōrum	bell örum	-ōru m
Dat.	hort īs	-īs	bell ïs	-Is
Acc.	hort ös	-ōs	bell a	-a
Voc.	hort ī	-1	bell a	-a
Abl.	hort īs	- īs	bell īs	-īs

Nouns in -er and -ir are declined as follows:— Puer, boy: Ager, field: Vir, man:

	n, puerŏ	stem, agrŏ	stem, virŏ- .	
		SINGULAR		TERMINATION.
Nom.	puer	ager	vir	Wanting
Gen.	puerī	agrī	vir ī	- T
Dat.	puerō	agrō	vir ō	-ō
Acc.	puer um	agrum	viru m	-um
Voc.	puer	ager	vir	Wanting
Abl.	puerō	agrō	vi rō	-ō
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	puer ī	agrī	vir ī	- I
Gen.	puer ōrum	agrōrum	vir ōrum	-ōrum
Dat.	puer īs	agr īs	vir īs	-īs
Acc.	puer ōs	agrōs	vir ōs ,	-ōs
Voc.	puer ī	agrī	vir ī	- ī
Abl.	puer īs	agr ī s	vir īs	-īs

1. Note that in words of the type of puer and vir the final vowel of the stem has disappeared in the Nominative and Vocative Singular.

In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of ager, the stem is further modified by the development of e before r.

2. The following nouns in -er are declined like puer: adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; Liber, Bacchus; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening; and compounds in -fer and -ger, as signifer, armiger.

Nouns in -vus, -vum, -quus.

24. Nouns ending in the Nominative Singular in -vus, -vum, -quus, exhibited two types of inflection in the classical Latin, — an earlier and a later, — as follows:—

Earlier Inflection (including Caesar and Cicero).

Servos, m., slave.	Aevom, n., <i>age</i> .	Equos, m., horse.
--------------------	-------------------------	-------------------

SINGULAR.

Nom.	servos	aevom	equos
Gen.	servī	aevī	equī
Dat.	servō	aevõ	equō
Acc.	servom	aevom	equom
Voc.	serve	aevom	eque
Abl.	servō	aevō	equõ

Later Inflection (after Cicero).

SINGULAR.

Nom.	servus	aevum	equus
Gen.	servī	aevī	equī
Dat.	servō	aevō	equō
Acc.	servum	aevum	equum
Voc.	serve	aevum	eque
Abl.	servõ	aevõ	eguō

1. The Plural of these nouns is regular, and always uniform.

Peculiarities of Inflection in the Second Declension.

- 25. I. Proper names in -ius regularly form the Genitive Singular in -ī (instead of -iī), and the Vocative Singular in -ī (for -ie); as, Vergilī, of Vergil, or O Vergil (instead of Vergilī, Vergilie). In such words the accent stands upon the penult, even though that be short.
- 2. Nouns in -ius and -ium, until after the beginning of the reign of Augustus (31 B.C.), regularly formed the Genitive Singular in -I (instead of -iI); as, —

Nom. ingenium filius Gen. ingénī filī

These Genitives accent the penult, even when it is short.

- 3. Filius forms the Vocative Singular in -I (for -ie); viz., filit, O son!
- 4. **Deus**, god, lacks the Vocative Singular. The Plural is inflected as follows:—

Nom.	đī	(đeī)
Gen.	deörum	(đeum)
Dat.	dīs	(deīs)
Acc.	deös	
Voc.	đī	(deī)
Abl.	dīs	(deīs)

- 5. The Locative Singular ends in -ī; as, Corinthī, at Corinth.
- 6. The Genitive Plural has -um, instead of -orum,
 - a) in words denoting money and measure; as, talentum, of talents; modium, of pecks.
 - b) in duumvir, triumvir, decemvir; as, duumvirum.
 - c) sometimes in other words; as, liberum, of the children; socium, of the allies.

Exceptions to Gender in the Second Declension.

- 26. 1. The following nouns in -us are Feminine by exception:
 - a) Names of countries, towns, islands, trees—according to the general rule laid down in § 15. 2.
 - b) Five special words, -

alvus, belly; carbasus, flax; colus, distaff; humus, ground; vannus, winnowing-fan.

- c) A few Greek Feminines; as,—
 atomus, atom;
 diphthongus, diphthong.
- 2. The following nouns in -us are Neuter:

pelagus, sea; vīrus, poison; vulgus, crowd.

Greek Nouns of the Second Declension.

27. These end in -os, -ōs, Masculine or Feminine; and -on, Neuter. They are mainly proper names, and are declined as follows:—

Barbitos, m. and f., lyre.		Androgeōs, m., Androgeos.	Īlion, n., <i>Troy</i> .
Nom.	barbit os	Androge ōs	Īlion
Gen.	barbit ī	Androgeō, -I	Īli T
Dat.	barbit ō	Androge ō	Īliō
Acc.	barbit on	Androgeō, -ōn	Īlion
Voc.	barbit e	Androge ōs	Īli on
Abl.	barbit ō	Androge ō	Īli ō

- 1. Nouns in -os sometimes form the Accusative Singular in -um, instead of -on; as, Dēlum, Delos.
 - 2. The Plural of Greek nouns, when it occurs, is usually regular.
- 3. For other rare forms of Greek nouns the lexicon may be consulted.

THIRD DECLENSION.

- 28. Nouns of the Third Declension end in -a, -e, -ī, -ō, -y, -c, -l, -n, -r, -s, -t, -x. The Third Declension includes several distinct classes of Stems.—
 - I. Pure Consonant-Stems.
 - II. I-Stems.
- III. Consonant-Stems which have partially adapted themselves to the inflection of 1-Stems.
- IV. A very few Stems ending in a long vowel or a diphthong.
 - V. Irregular Nouns.

I. Consonant Stems.

29. I. In these the stem appears in its unaltered form in all the oblique cases; so that the actual case-endings
may be clearly recognized.

2. Consonant-Stems fall into several natural subdivisions, according as the stem ends in a Mute, Liquid, Nasal, or Spirant.

A. Mute-Stems.

- 30. Mute-Stems may end, -
 - I. In a Labial (b or p); as, trab-s; princep-s.
 - 2. In a Guttural (g or c); as, rēmex (rēmeg-s); dux (duc-s).
 - 3. In a Dental (d or t); as, lapis (lapid-s); mīles (mīlet-s).

1. STEMS IN A LABIAL MUTE (b, p).

31. Trabs, f., beam.		Prīnceps, m., chief.	
		SINGULAR.	TERMINATION.
Nom.	trab s	prīncep s	-8
Gen.	trab is	prīncip is	-is
Dat.	trab ī	prīncip ī	- ī
Acc.	trab em	prīncipem	-em
Voc.	trabs	prīncep s	-8
Abl.	trabe	prīncip e	-е
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	trabēs	prīncip ēs	-ēs
Gen.	trabu m	prīncip um	· -um
Dat.	trab ibus	prīncip ibus	-ibus
Acc.	trabēs	prīncip ēs	-ēs
Voc.	trab ēs	prīncip ēs	-ēs
Abl.	trab ibus	prīncip ibus	-ibus

2. STEMS IN A GUTTURAL MUTE (g, c).

32. In these the termination -s of the Nominative Singular unites with the guttural, thus producing -x.

Rēmex, m., rower.			Dux, c., leader.	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	. rēme ≭	rēmig ēs	du≖	ducēs
Gen.	rēmig is	rēmigu m	ducis	ducum
Dat.	rēmig ī	rēmig ibus	duc ī	duc ibus
Acc.	rēmig em	rēmig ēs	duc em	duc ēs
Voc.	rēme≖	rëmig ës	dux	duc ēs
Abl.	rēmig e	rēmig ibus	guce	audibus

3. STEMS IN A DENTAL MUTE (d, t).

33. In these the final d or t of the stem disappears in the Nominative Singular before the ending -s.

Lapis, m., stone.			Mīles, m.	Miles, m., soldier.	
SINGULAR. PLURAL.		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.		
Nom.	lapis	lapid ēs	mīle s	mīlit ēs	
Gen.	lapid is	lapid um	mīlit is	mīlit um	
Dat.	lapid ī	lapid ibus	mīlit ī	mīlit ibus	
Acc.	lapid em	lapid ēs	mīlit em	mīlit ēs	
Voc.	lapi s	lapid ēs	mīles	mīlit ēs	
Abl.	lapid e	lapid ibus	mīlit e	mīlit ibus	

B. Liquid Stems.

34. These end in -1 or -r.

Vigil, m.,	Victor, m.,	Aequor, n.,
watchman.	conqueror.	sea.
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. vigil	victor	aequor
Gen. vigilis	victōr is	aequor is
Dat. vigilī	victōr ī	aequor ī
Acc. vigilem	victōr em	aequor
Voc. vigil	victor	aequor
Abl. vigile	victōr e	aequore
	PLURAL.	
Nom. vigilēs	victōr ēs	aequora
Gen. vigilum	victōr um	aequor um
Dat. vigilibus	victōr ibus	aequor ibus
Acc. vigilēs	victōr ēs	aequora
Voc. vigilēs	victōr ēs	aequora
Abl. vigilibus	victõr ibus	aequor ibus

- 1. Masculine and Feminine stems ending in a liquid form the Nominative and Vocative Singular without termination.
- 2. The termination is also lacking in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular of all neuters of the Third Declension.

C. Nasal Stems.

35. These end in -n,1 which often disappears in the Nom. Sing.

	Leō , m., <i>lion</i> .		Nõmen, r	Nomen, n., name.	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Nom.	leō	leōn ēs	nōmen	nōmin a	
Gen.	leōn is	l e ōn um	nōmin is	nōmin um	
Dat.	leōn ī	leōn ibus	nōmin ī	nōmin ibus	
Acc.	leōn em	leōn ēs	nōmen	nōmin a	
Voc.	leō	leōn ēs	nõmen	nōmin a	
Abl.	leõne	leön ibus	nōmin e	nōmin ibus	

D. B-Stems.

36. Mōs	, m., custom.	Genus, n., race.	Honor, m., honor.
		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	mōs	genus	honor
Gen.	mōr is	gener is	honōr is
Dat.	mōr ī	generī	honōr ī
Acc.	mõr em	genus	honōr em
Voc.	mõs	genus	honor
Abl.	mōr e	genere	honōr e
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	mōr ēs	genera	honōr ēs
Gen.	mōr um	generum	honör um
Dat.	mōr ibus	gener ibus	honõr ibus
Acc.	mōr ēs	genera	honōr ēs
Voc.	mõr ës	genera	honōr ēs
Abl.	mõr ibus	generibus	honōr ibus

1. Note that the final s of the stem becomes r (between vowels) in the oblique cases. In some words (honor, color, and the like) the r of the oblique cases has, by analogy, crept into the Nominative, displacing the earlier s, though the forms honos, colos, etc., also occur, particularly in early Latin and in poetry.

¹ There is only one stem ending in -m, - hloms, hlomis, winter.

II. ĭ-Stems.

A. Masculine and Feminine 1-Stems.

37. These regularly end in -is in the Nominative Singular, and always have -ium in the Genitive Plural. Originally the Accusative Singular ended in -im, the Ablative Singular in -ī, and the Accusative Plural in -īs; but these endings have been largely displaced by -em, -e, and -ēs, the endings of Consonant-Stems.

38 .	Tussis, f., cough;	Īgnis, m., fire;	Hostis, c., enemy;
	stem, tussi	stem, īgni -,	stem, hosti

		SINGULAR.		TERMINATION.
Nom.	tuss is	īgn is	host is	-is
Gen.	tuss is	īgn is	host is	-is
Dat.	tuss ī	īgn ī	host ī	- ī
Acc.	tuss im	īgnem	host em	-im, -em
Voc.	tuss is	īgn is	hosti s	-is
Abl.	tuss ī	īgn ī or -e	host e	-e, -ī
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	tussēs	īgnēs	host ēs	-ēs
Gen.	tuss ium	īgn ium	hos tium	-ium
Dat.	tuss ibus	īgnibus	host ibus	-ibus
Acc.	tussīs or -ēs	īgn īs or -ēs	host īs or -ēs	-īs, -ēs
Voc.	tuss ēs	īgnēs	host ēs	- ē s
Abl.	tuss ibus	īgn ibus	host ibus	-ibus

I. To the same class belong -

*amussis, <i>rule</i> .	oorbis, basket.	scobis, sawdust.
apis, <i>bee</i> .	crātis, <i>hurdle</i> .	*secūris, <i>axe</i> .
auris, <i>ear</i> .	*febris, fever.	sēmentis, sowing.
avis, bird.	orbis, circle.	*sitis, thirst.
axis, axle.	ovis, sheep.	torris, brand.
*būris, plough-beam.	pelvis, basin.	*turris, tower.
clāvis, <i>key</i> .	puppis, stern.	trudis, pole.
collis, hill.	restis, <i>rope</i> .	vectis, lever.
	and many others.	

Words marked with a star have Acc.-im, Abl.-I. Of the others, many at times show i-forms. Town and river names in -is regularly have-im,-I.

- 2. Not all nouns in -is are I-Stems. Some are genuine consonantstems, and have the regular consonant terminations throughout, notably, canis, dog; juvenis, youth.¹
- 3. Some genuine I-Stems have become disguised in the Nominative Singular; as, pars, part, for par(ti)s; anas, duck, for ana(ti)s; so also mors, death; dos, dowry; nox, night; sors, lot; mens, mind; ars, art; gens, tribe; and some others.

B. Neuter 1-Stems.

39. These end in the Nominative Singular in -e, -al, and -ar. They always have -ī in the Ablative Singular, -ia in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, and -ium in the Genitive Plural, thus holding more steadfastly to the i-character than do Masculine and Feminine I-Stems.

Sedle, seat; Animal, animal; Calcar, spur; stem, sedli-. stem, animāli-. stem, calcāri-

		SINGULAR.		TERMINATION.
Nom.	sedīl e	animal	calcar	-e or wanting
Gen.	sedī lis	animāl is	calcār is	-is
Dat.	sedīl ī	animāl ī	calcār ī	- ī
Acc.	sedīle	animal	calcar	-e or wanting
Voc.	sedīle	animal	calcar	-e or wanting
Abl.	sedīl ī	animāl ī	calcār*	- ī
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	sedīlia	animālia	calcār ia	-ia
Gen.	sedīl ium	animāl ium	calcārium	-ium
Dat.	sedīl ibus	animāl ibus	calcār ibus	-ibus
Acc.	sedīl ia	animāl ia	calcār ia	-ia
Voc.	s e dīl ia	animāl ia	c alcā ria	-ia
Abl.	sedīli bus	animā libus	c alcār ibus	-ibus

- 1. In most words of this class the final -i of the stem is lost in the Nominative Singular; in others it appears as -e.
- 2. Proper names in -e form the Ablative Singular in -e; as, Soracte, Soracte; so also sometimes mare, sea.

¹ Mönsis, month, originally a consonant-stem (möns-), has in the Genitive Plural both mönsium and mönsum. The Accusative Plural is mönsös.

III. Consonant-Stems that have partially adapted themselves to the Inflection of i-Stems.

40. Many Consonant-Stems have so far adapted themselves to the inflection of 1-stems as to take -ium in the Genitive Plural, and -1s in the Accusative Plural. Their true character as Consonant-Stems, however, is shown by the fact that they never take -im in the Accusative Singular, or -1 in the Ablative Singular. The following words are examples of this class:—

Caedes, f., slaughter; stem, caed	Arx, f., citadel; stem, arc	Linter, f., skiff; stem, lintr
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. caedēs	ar≖	linter
Gen. caedis	arc is	lintri s
Dat . caed \mathbf{I}	arc ī	lintr ī
Acc. caedem	arcem	lintre m
Voc. caedēs	arx	linter
Abl. caede	arce	lintre
	PLURAL.	
Nom. caedēs	arcēs	lintr ēs
Gen. caedium	arcium	lintr ium
Dat. caedibus	arcibus	lintr ibus
Acc. caedēs, -īs	arc ēs, -īs	lintr ēs, -īs
Voc. caedēs	arc ës	lintr ēs
Abl. caedibus	arcibus	lintr ibus

- 1. The following classes of nouns belong here:
 - a) Nouns in -ēs, with Genitive in -is; as, nūbēs, aedēs, clādēs, etc.
 - b) Many monosyllables in -s or -x preceded by one or more consonants; as, urbs, mons, stirps, lanx.
 - c) Most nouns in -ns and -rs; as, cliens, cohors.
 - d) Uter, venter; für, līs, mās, mūs, nix; and the Plurals faucēs, penātēs, Optimātēs, Samnītēs, Quirītēs.
 - e) Sometimes nouns in -tas with Genitive -tatis; as, cīvitas, aetas.

IV. Stems in $-\overline{i}$, $-\overline{u}$, and Diphthongs.

4 1.		Vis, f., force; stem, vi	Sūs , c., <i>swine</i> ; stem, sū	Bōs , c., ox, cow; stem, bou	Jūpiter, m., <i>Jupiter</i> ; stem, Jou
			SINGULA	R.	
Λ	Vom.	vī s	sū s	bōs	Jūpiter
G	en.	vis	su is	bov is	Jovis
L	Oat.	vī	su ī	bov ī	Jov ī
A	lcc.	vi m	su em	bov em	Jov em
ν	oc.	vī s	sū s	b ō s	Jūpiter
A	1 <i>61</i> .	vī	sue	bov e	Jove
			PLURAL	•	
Λ	Tom.	vīr ēs	su ēs	bovēs	
G	en.	vīr ium	su um	} bov um } bou m	
L	Dat.	vī ribus) su ibus) su bus) bõ bus) bü bus	
A	lcc.	vīr ēs	su ēs	bov ēs	
ν	oc.	vīr ēs	su ēs	bov ēs	
A	161.	vīr ibus	∫ suibus) su bus	(bõ bus) bū bus	

- 1. Notice that the oblique cases of sts have t in the root syllable.
- 2. Grüs is declined like süs, except that the Dative and Ablative Plural are always gruibus.
- 3. Jüpiter is for Jou-pater, and therefore contains the same stem as in Jov-is, Jov-I, etc.
- 4. Nāvis was originally a diphthong stem ending in au-, but it has passed over to the I-stems (§ 37).

V. Irregular Nouns.

42. Sen	ex, m., old man.	Carō, f., flesh.	os , n., <i>bone</i> .
		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	senex	carō	os
Gen.	sen is	carn is	oss is
Dat.	sen ī	carn ī	ossī
Acc.	sen em	carn em	os
Voc.	senex	carō	os
Ahl.	sene	carne	9220

PLURAL.

Nom.	sen ës	carn ēs	ossa
Gen.	senu m	carnium	ossium
Dat.	sen ibus	carnibus	oss ibus
Acc.	sen ës	carn ēs	ossa
Voc.	sen ēs	carn ēs	ossa
Abl.	sen ibus	carn ibus	oss ibus

- r. Iter, itineris, n., way, is inflected regularly throughout from the stem itiner.
- 2. Supellex, supellectilis, f., furniture, is confined to the Singular. The oblique cases are formed from the stem supellectil. The Ablative has both -I and -e.
- 3. Jecur, n., liver, forms its oblique cases from two stems,—jecor- and jecinor-. Thus, Gen. jecoris or jecinoris.
- 4. Femur, n., thigh, usually forms its oblique cases from the stem femor-, but sometimes from the stem femin-. Thus, Gen. femoris or feminis.

General Principles of Gender in the Third Declension.

- 43. 1. Nouns in -5, -or, -ōs, -er, -ĕs are Masculine.
- 2. Nouns in -ās, -ēs, -is, -ys, -x, -s (preceded by a consonant); -dō, -gō (Genitive -inis); -iō (abstract and collective), -ūs (Genitive -ūtis or -ūdis) are Feminine.
- 3. Nouns ending in -a, -e, -i, -y, -o, -l, -n, -t, -ar, -ur, -us are Neuter.

Chief Exceptions to Gender in the Third Declension.

44. Exceptions to the Rule for Masculines.

- 1. Nouns in -5.
 - a. Feminine: caro, flesh.
- 2. Nouns in -or.
 - a. Feminine: arbor, tree.
 - b. Neuter: aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.
- 3. Nouns in -ōs.
 - a. Feminine: dos, dowry.
 - b. Neuter: os (oris), mouth
- 4. Nouns in -er.
 - a. Feminine: linter, skiff.

- b. Neuter: oadāver, corpse; iter, way; tūber, tumor; ūber, udder. Also botanical names in -er; as, aoer, maple.
- 5. Nouns in -ĕs.
 - a. Feminine: seges, crop.
- 45. Exceptions to the Rule for Feminines.
- I. Nouns in -as.
 - a. Masculine, as, an as (coin); vas, bondsman.
 - b. Neuter: vas, vessel.
- 2. Nouns in -es.
 - a. Masculine: aries, ram; paries, wall; pes, foot.
- 3. Nouns in -is.
 - a. Masculine: all nouns in -nis and -guis; as, amnis, river;
 Ignis, fire; pānis, bread; sanguis, blood; unguis, nail.
 Also —

axis, axle. piscis, fish.
collis, hill. postis, post.
fascis, bundle. pulvis, dust.
lapis, stone. orbis, circle.
mēnsis, month. sentis, brier.

- 4. Nouns in -x.
 - a. Masculine: apex, peak; codex, tree-trunk; grex, flock; imbrex, tile; pollex, thumb; vertex, summit; calix, cup.
- 5. Nouns in -s preceded by a consonant.
 - a. Masculine: dons, tooth; fons, fountain; mons, mountain; pons, bridge.
- 6. Nouns in -dō.
 - a. Masculine: cardo, hinge; ordo, order.
- 46. Exceptions to the Rule for Neuters.
- I. Nouns in -1.
 - a. Masculine: sol, sun; sal, salt.
- 2. Nouns in -n.
 - a. Masculine: pecten, comb.
- 3. Nouns in -ur.
 - a. Masculine: vultur, vulture.
- 4. Nouns in -us.
 - a. Masculine: lepus, hare.

Greek Nouns of the Third Declension.

- 47. The following are the chief peculiarities of these:—
- The ending -ă in the Accusative Singular; as, aetheră, aether;
 Salamīnă, Salamis.
- 2. The ending -ës in the Nominative Plural; as, Phrygës, Phrygians.
- 3. The ending -as in the Accusative Plural; as, Phrygas, Phrygians.
- 4. Proper names in -ās (Genitive -antis) have -ā in the Vocative Singular; as, Atlās (Atlantis), Vocative Atlā, Atlas.
- 5. Neuters in -ma (Genitive -matis) have -īs instead of -ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural; as, poēmatīs, poems.
- 6. Orpheus, and other proper names ending in -eus, form the Vocative Singular in -eu (Orpheu, etc.). But in prose the other cases usually follow the second declension; as, Orpheī, Orpheō, etc.
- Proper names in -5s, like Periol5s, form the Genitive Singular sometimes in -1s, sometimes in -1; as, Periol1s or Periol1.
- 8. Feminine proper names in -ō have -ūs in the Genitive, but -ō in the other oblique cases; as, —

Nom.	Dīdō	Acc.	Dīdō
Gen.	Dīdūs	Voc.	Dīdō
Dat.	Dīdō	Abl.	Dīdō

q. The regular Latin endings often occur in Greek nouns.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

ŭ-Stems.

48. Nouns of the Fourth Declension end in -us Masculine, and -ū Neuter. They are declined as follows:—

Früctus, fruit.		Cornū,	Cornū, horn.	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	frūct us	frūct ūs	cornū	cornua
Gen.	frūct ūs	frūct uum	corn ūs	cornuum
Dat.	frūctu ī	frūct ibus	corn ū	cornibus
Acc.	frūct um	frūct ūs	corn ū	cornua
Voc.	frūctus	frūct ūs	cornū	cornua
Abl.	frūct ū	früctibus	corn ū	cornibus

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fourth Declension.

- 49. 1. Nouns in -us, particularly in early Latin, often form the Genitive Singular in -ī, following the analogy of nouns in -us of the Second Declension; as, senātī, ōrnātī. This is usually the case in Plautus and Terence.
- 2. Nouns in -us sometimes have -ū in the Dative Singular, instead of -uī; as, frūctū (for frūctuī).
- 3. The ending -ubus, instead of -ibus, occurs in the Dative and Ablative Plural of artus (Plural), limbs; tribus, tribe; and in dissyllables in -cus; as, artubus, tribubus, arcubus, lacubus. But with the exception of tribus, all these words admit the forms in -ibus as well as those in -ubus.
- 4. Domus, house, is declined according to the Fourth Declension, but has also the following forms of the Second:—

domī (locative), at home; domum, homewards, to one's home; domō, from home; domōs, homewards, to their (etc.) homes.

5. The only Neuters of this declension in common use are: cornū, genū, and verū.

Exceptions to Gender in the Fourth Declension.

50. The following nouns in -us are Feminine: acus, needle; domus, house; manus, hand; porticus, colonnade; tribus, tribe; Idūs (Plural), Ides.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

ē-Stems.

51. Nouns of the Fifth Declension end in -5s, and are declined as follows:—

Diēs, m., day.		Rēs, f., thing.		
S	INGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	diēs	di ēs	r ēs	rēs
Gen.	di ēī	di ērum	r ĕī	r ērum
Dat.	di ēī	di ēbus	r ĕī	rēbus
Acc.	diem	di ēs	rem	rēs
Voc.	diēs	diēs	rēs	e ē r
Abl.	di ë	diēbus	Бr	BVG31

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fifth Declension.

- 52. 1. The ending of the Genitive and Dative Singular is -et, instead of -et, when a consonant precedes; as, spet, ret, fidet.
- 2. A Genitive ending -I (for -eti) is found in plebi (from plebes = plebs) in the expressions tribunus plebi, tribune of the people, and plebi solum, decree of the people; sometimes also in other words.
 - 3. A Genitive and Dative form in -ē sometimes occurs; as, aciē.
- 4. With the exception of dies and res, most nouns of the Fifth Declension are not declined in the Plural. But acies, series, species, spes, and a few others, are used in the Nominative and Accusative Plural.

Gender in the Fifth Declension.

53. Nouns of the Fifth Declension are regularly Feminine, except dies, day, and merīdies, mid-day. But dies is sometimes Feminine in the Singular, particularly when it means an appointed day.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

54. Here belong -

- 1. Nouns used in the Singular only.
- 2. Nouns used in the Plural only.
- 3. Nouns used only in certain cases.
- 4. Indeclinable Nouns.

Nouns used in the Singular only.

- 55. Many nouns, from the nature of their signification, are regularly used in the Singular only. Thus:—
 - I. Proper names; as, Cicero, Cicero; Italia, Italy.
 - 2. Nouns denoting material; as, aes, copper; lac, milk.
- 3. Abstract nouns; as, ignorantia, ignorance; bonitas, goodness.
- 4. But the above classes of words are sometimes used in the Plural. Thus: $\,$
 - a) Proper names, to denote different members of a family, or specimens of a type; as, Cicerones, the Ciceros; Catones, men like Cato.

- b) Names of materials, to denote objects made of the material, or different kinds of the substance; as, aera, bronzes (i.e. bronze figures); līgna, woods.
- c) Abstract nouns, to denote instances of the quality; as, ignorantiae, cases of ignorance.

Nouns used in the Plural only.

56. Here belong —

- 1. Many geographical names; as, Thebae, Thebes; Leuctra, Leuctra; Pompējī, Pompeii.
- 2. Many names of festivals; as, Megalesia, the Megalesian festival.
- 3. Many special words, of which the following are the most important:—

angustiae, narrow pass. mānēs, spirits of the dead. minae, threats. arma, weapons. dēliciae, delight. moenia, city walls. divitiae, riches. nūptiae, marriage. Īdūs, Ides. posterī, descendants. reliquiae, remainder. indütiae, truce. Insidiae, ambush. tenebrae, darkness. mājorēs, ancestors. verbera, blows.

Also in classical prose regularly -

cervīcēs, neck. nārēs, nose. fidēs, lyre. vīscera, viscera.

Nouns used only in Certain Cases.

- 57. 1. Used in only One Case. Many nouns of the Fourth Declension are found only in the Ablative Singular; as, jussū, by the order; injussū, without the order; nātū, by birth.
 - 2. Used in Two Cases.
 - a. Fors (chance), Nom. Sing.; forte, Abl. Sing.
 - b. Spontis (free-will). Gen. Sing.; sponte, Abl. Sing.
- 3. Used in Three Cases. Nomo, no one (Nom.), has also the Dat. nomini and the Acc. nominem. The Gen. and Abl. are supplied by the corresponding cases of nullus; viz. nullus and nullo.

- 4. Impetus has the Nom., Acc., and Abl. Sing., and the Nom. and Acc. Plu.; vis. impetus, impetum, impetū, impetūs.
 - 5. a. Precī, precem, prece, lacks the Nom. and Gen. Sing.
 - b. Vicis, vicem, vice, lacks the Nom. and Dat. Sing.
 - 6. Opis, dapis, and frugis, all lack the Nom. Sing.
- 7. Many monosyllables of the Third Declension lack the Gen. Plu.; as, cor, lūx, sõl, aes, ōs (ōris), rūs, sāl, tūs.

Indeclinable Nouns.

58. Here belong —

fās, n., right. Instar, n., likeness. māne, n., morning. nefās, n., impiety. nihil, n., nothing. secus, n., sex.

1. With the exception of mane (which may serve also as Ablative, in the morning), the nouns in this list are simply Neuters confined in use to the Nominative and Accusative Singular.

Heteroclites.

- 59. These are nouns whose forms are partly of one declension, and partly of another. Thus:—
- 1. Several nouns have the entire Singular of one declension, while the Plural is of another; as,—

vās, vāsis (vessel); Plu., vāsa, vāsorum, vāsīs, etc. jūgerum, jūgerī (acre); Plu., jūgera, jūgerum, jūgeribus, etc.

- 2. Several nouns, while belonging in the main to one declension, have certain special forms belonging to another. Thus:
 - a) Many nouns of the First Declension ending in -ia take also a Nom. and Acc. of the Fifth; as, māteriēs, māteriem, material, as well as māteria, māteriam.
 - b) Famēs, hunger, regularly of the Third Declension, has the Abl. famē of the Fifth.
 - c) Requiës, requiëtis, rest, regularly of the Third Declension, takes an Acc. of the Fifth, requiem, in addition to requiëtem.
 - d) Besides plēbs, plēbis, common people, of the Third Declension, we find plēbēs, plēbēī (also plēbī, see § 52. 2), of the Fifth.

Heterogeneous Nouns.

- 60. Heterogeneous nouns vary in Gender. Thus:—
- 1. Several nouns of the Second Declension have two forms, one Masc. in -us, and one Neuter in -um; as, clipeus, clipeum, shield; carrus, carrum, cart.
- 2. Other nouns have one gender in the Singular, another in the Plural; as, —

SINGULAR.

balneum, n., bath; epulum, n., feast; frēnum, n., bridle; jocus, m., jest; locus, m., place;

rästrum, n., rake;

PLURAL.

balneae, f., bath-house.

epulae, f., feast.

frēnī, m. (rarely frēna, n.), bridle.
joca, n. (also jocī, m.), jests.
loca, n., places; locī, m., passages
or topics in an author.

rāstrī, m.; rāstra, n., rakes.

a. Heterogeneous nouns may at the same time be heteroclites, as in case of the first two examples above.

Plurals with Change of Meaning.

61. The following nouns have one meaning in the Singular, and another in the Plural:—

SINGULAR.

aedēs, temple;
auxilium, help;
caroer, prison;
castrum, fort;
cōpia, abundance;
fīnis, end;
fortūna, fortune;
grātia, favor;
impedīmentum, hindrance;
littera, letter (of the alphabet);
mōs, habit, custom;
opera, help, service;
(ops) opis, help;
pars, part;

PLURAL.

aedēs, house.

auxilia, auxiliary troops.
caroerēs, stalls for racing-chariots.
castra, camp.
cōpiae, troops, resources.
finēs, borders, territory.
fortūnae, possessions, wealth.
grātiae, thanks.
impedīmenta, baggage.
litterae, epistle, literature.
mōrēs, character.
operae, laborers.
opēs, resources.
partēs, party, rôle.
sălēs, wit.

sāl, salt;

B. ADJECTIVES.

- **62.** Adjectives denote *quality*. They are declined like nouns, and fall into two classes,—
 - 1. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.
 - 2. Adjectives of the Third Declension.

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS.

63. In these the Masculine is declined like hortus, puer, or ager, the Feminine like porta, and the Neuter like bellum. Thus, Masculine like hortus:—

Bonus, good.

		SINGULAR.	
	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Nom.	bon us	bon a	bon um
Gen.	bon ī	bon ae	bonī
Dat.	bon ō	bo nae	bon ō
Acc.	bonum	bon am	bon um
Voc.	bone	bona	bon um
Abl.	bon ō	bonā	bon ō
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	bon ī	bon ae	bo na
Gen.	bon ōrum	bon ārum	bon ōrum
Dat.	bon īs	bon īs	bon īs
Acc.	bon ōs	bon ās	bona
Voc.	b on ī	bon ae	bona
Abl.	bon īs	bon īs	bon īs

a. The Genitive Singular Masculine and Neuter of Adjectives in -ius ends in -iī (not in -ī as in case of Nouns; see § 25. I; 2). So also the Vocative Singular of such Adjectives ends in -ie, not in -ī. Thus eximius forms Genitive eximiī; Vocative eximie.

64. Masculine like puer:

Tener, tender.

		SINGULAR.	
	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Nom.	tener	tenera	ten erum
Gen.	tener ī	tenerae	tener ī
Dat.	tenerō	tenerae	tener ō
Acc.	tener um	tener am	tener um
Voc.	tener	tener a	ten erum
Abl.	tener ō	tener ā	tener ō
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	tener ī	tener ae	tenera
Gen.	tener ōrum	tener ārum	tener örum
Dat.	tener īs	tener īs	ten erīs
Acc.	tener ōs	tener ās	tenera
Voc.	tener ī	ten erae	tener a
Abl.	tener īs	tener īs	tener īs

65. Masculine like ager: -

Sacer, sacred.

		,	
		SINGULAR.	
	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	Neuter.
Nom.	sacer	sacr a	sacrum
Gen.	sacrī	sacr ae	sacrī
Dat.	sacr ō	sacrae	sacr ō
Acc.	sacrum.	sacr am	sacrum
Voc.	sacer	sacra	sacrum
Abl.	sacr ō	sacrā	sacrō
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	sacrī	sacrae	sacra
Gen.	sacr ōrum	sacr ār u m	sacr ōrum
Dat.	sacr īs	sacr īs	sacr īs
Acc.	sacr ōs	sacr ās	sacr a
Voc.	sacrī	sacrae	sacra
Abl.	sacr īs	sacr īs	sacrīs

1. Most adjectives in -er are declined like sacer. The following are declined like tener: asper, rough; lacer, torn; liber, free;

miser, wretched; prosper, prosperous; compounds in -fer and -ger; sometimes dexter, right.

2. Satur, full, is declined: satur, satura, saturum.

Nine Irregular Adjectives.

66. Here belong —

alius, another; alter, the other; üllus, any; nūllus, none; uter, which? (of two); neuter, neither; sõlus, alone; tõtus, whole; ūnus, one, alone.

They are declined as follows: -

SINGULAR.

			01110021111			
	MASCULINE. alius	ali a	aliu d	MASCULINE. alter	altera	Neuter. alterum
Gen.	alter ĭus	alter ĭus	alter ĭus ¹	alter ĭus	alter ĭus	alter ĭus
Dat.	ali ī	ali ī	ali ī	alter ī	alter ī ²	alter ī
Acc.	ali um	ali am	ali ud	alterum	alter am	alterum
Voc.						
Abl.	ali ō	ali ā	ali ō	alter ō	alter ā	alter ō
Nom.	uter	utra	utr um	tōt us	tōta	t ōt um
Gen.	utr īus	utr īus	utr īus	tõt īus	tōt īus	t ōt īus
Dat.	utr ī	utr ī	utr ī	tōt ī	tōt ī	tōt ī
Acc.	utr um	utr am	utr um	t ōtu m	tōtam	tõtum
Voc.						
Abl.	utr ō	utr ã	utr ō	tōt ō	tōtā	tōt ō

- 1. All these words lack the Vocative. The Plural is regular.
- 2. Neuter is declined like uter.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

- 67. These fall into three classes, —
- 1. Adjectives of three terminations in the Nominative Singular, one for each gender.
 - 2. Adjectives of two terminations.
 - 3. Adjectives of one termination.

¹ This is almost always used instead of alfus in the Genitive,

A Dative Singular Feminine alterae also occurs.

a. With the exception of Comparatives, and a few other words mentioned below in § 70. I, all Adjectives of the Third Declension follow the inflection of I-stems; i.e. they have the Ablative Singular in -I, the Genitive Plural in -ium, the Accusative Plural in -Is (as well as -5s) in the Masculine and Feminine, and the Nominative and Accusative Plural in -ia in Neuters.

Adjectives of Three Terminations.

68. These are declined as follows:—

Ācer, sharp.

		SINGULAR.	
	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	Neuter.
Nom.	ācer	ācr is	āc re
Gen.	ācr is	ācr is	ācr is
Dat.	ācr ī	ācr ī	ācr ī
Acc.	ācre m	ācr em	ācr e
Voc.	ācer	ācr is	ācre
Abl.	ācr ī .	ācr ī	ācr ī
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	ācr ēs	ācr ēs	ācria
Gen.	ācr ium	ācr ium	ācr ium
Dat.	ācribus	ācribus	ācrib us
Acc.	ācr ēs, -īs	ācr ēs , - īs	ācr ia
Voc.	ācr ēs	ācr ēs	ācr ia
Ahl.	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus

- I. Like acer are declined alacer, lively; campester, level; celeber, famous; equester, equestrian; palüster, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; puter, rotten; salüber, wholesome; silvester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volucer, winged; also names of months in -ber, as September.
- 2. Celer, celeris, celere, swift, retains the e before r, but lacks the Genitive Plural.
- 3. In the Nominative Singular of Adjectives of this class the Feminine form is sometimes used for the Masculine. This is regularly true of salūbris, silvestris, and terrestris. In case of the other words in the list, the use of the Feminine for the Masculine is confined chiefly to early and late Latin, and to poetry.

Adjectives of Two Terminations.

69. These are declined as follows:—

Fortis, strong.			Fortior, stronger		
		S	INGULAR.		
	M. AND F.	NEUT.		M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	fort is	fort e		fortior	fortius
Gen.	fort is	fort is		fortiōr is	fortiōr is
Dat.	fort ī	fort ī		fortiōr ī	fortiōr ī
Acc.	fortem.	fort e		fortiör em	fortius
Voc.	fort is	fort e		fortior	fortius
Abl.	fort ī	fort ī		fortiōr e, -ī	fortiōr e , - ī
		1	PLURAL.		
Nom.	fort ës	fortia		fortiōr ēs	fortiōr a
Gen.	fort ium	fort ium		fortiō rum	fortiōr um
Dat.	fort ibus	fort ibus		fortiōr ibus	fortiōr ibus
Acc.	fort ēs, -īs	forti a		fortiōr ēs, -īs	fortiōr a
Voc.	fortēs	fort ia		fortiōr ēs	fortiōr a
Abl.	fort ibus	fort ibus		fortiōribus	fortiōr ibus

1. Fortior is the Comparative of fortis. All Comparatives are regularly declined in the same way. The Acc. Plu. in -Is is rare.

Adjectives of One Termination.

70 .	Fēlīx, happy.		Prūdēns, prudent.		
		S	INGULAR.		
	M. AND F.	NEUT.		M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	fēlīx	fēlīx		prūdēns	prūdēns
Gen.	fēlīc is	fēlīc is		prūdent is	prūdent is
Dat.	fēlīc ī	fēlīc ī		prūdent ī	prūdent ī
Acc.	fēlīc em	fēlīx		prūdent em	prūdēns
Voc.	fēlīx	fēlīx		prūdēns	p rūd ēns
Abl.	fēlīc ī	fēlīc ī		prūdent ī	prūdent ī
			PLURAL.		
Nom.	fēlīc ēs	fēlīc ia		prūdent ēs	prūdent ia
Gen.	fēlīc ium	fēlīc ium		prūdent ium	prūdent ium
Dat.	fēlīc ibus	fēlīc ibus		prūdent ibus	prūdent ibus
Acc.	fēlīc ēs, -īs	fēlīcia		prūdent ēs, -īs	prūdent ia
Voc.	fēlīc ēs	fēlīc ia		prūdent ēs	prūdent ia
Abl.	fēlīc ibus	fēlīcibus		prūdent ībus	prūdent ibus

Vetus, old. Plus, more. SINGULAR. M. AND F. NEUT. M. AND F. NEUT. Nom. vetus vetus plūs veteris plūr**is** Gen. veteris. Dat. veterī veterī Acc. veterem. vetus plūs Voc. vetus vetus Abl. plūre vetere. vetere PLURAL. plūrēs plūra Nom. veteres vetera plūrium plūr**ium** Gen. veterum veterum. Dat. veteribus veteribus plūribus plūr**ibus** Acc. veter**ës** vetera. plūrēs, -īs plūra Voc. veterēs vetera. Abl. veteribus plūr**ibus** plūribus veteribus

- I. It will be observed that **vetus** is declined as a pure Consonant-Stem; *i.e.* Ablative Singular in -e, Genitive Plural in -um, Nominative Plural Neuter in -a, and Accusative Plural Masculine and Feminine in -ēs only. In the same way are declined compos, controlling; dives, rich; particeps, sharing; pauper, poor; princeps, chief; sōspes, safe; superstes, surviving. Yet dives always has Neut. Plu. dītia.
- 2. Inops, needy, and memor, mindful, have Ablative Singular inopī, memorī, but Genitive Plural inopum, memorum.
- 3. Participles in -āns and -ēns follow the declension of I-stems. But they do not have -ī in the Ablative, except when employed as adjectives; when used as participles or as substantives, they have -e; as, —

ā sapientī virō, by a wise man; but ā sapiente, by a philosopher; Tarquiniō rēgnante, under the reign of Tarquin.

- 4. Plūs, in the Singular, is always a noun.
- 5. In the Ablative Singular, adjectives, when used as substantives,
 - a) usually retain the adjective declension; as, -

aequālis, contemporary, Abl. aequālī. consulāris, ex-consul, Abl. consulārī.

So names of Months; as, Aprīlī, April; Decembrī, December.

b) But adjectives used as proper names have -e in the Ablative Singular; as, Celere, Celer; Juvenāle, Juvenal.

- c) Patrials in -as, -atis and -is, -Itis, when designating places, regularly have -ī; as, in Arpīnātī, on the estate at Arpinum; yet -e, when used of persons; as, ab Arpīnāte, by an Arpinatian.
- 6. A very few indeclinable adjectives occur, the chief of which are frugī, frugal, nēquam, worthless.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

- 71. 1. There are three degrees of Comparison, the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.
- 2. The Comparative is regularly formed by adding -ior (Neut. -ius), and the Superlative by adding -issimus (-a, -um), to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel; as,—

altus, high,	altior, higher,	altissimus, { highest, very high,
fortis, brave,	fortior,	fort issimus.
fēlīx, <i>fortunate</i> , dīves, <i>rich</i> ,	fēlīc ior, dīvit ior,	fēlīc issimus. dīvit issimus.
arves, rech,	uiviuoi,	arragamas.

So also Participles, when used as Adjectives; as, -

doctus, learned, doctior, doctissimus. egēns, needy, egentior, egentissimus.

3. Adjectives in -er form the Superlative by appending -rimus to the Nominative of the Positive. The Comparative is regular. Thus:—

asper, rough, pulcher, beautiful,	asperior, pulchrior,	asper rimus. pulcher rimus.
ācer, sharp,	ācr ior,	ācerrimus.
celer, swift,	celerior,	celer rimus .
pauper, poor,	pauperior,	pauperrimus.

- a. Notice mātūrus, mātūrior, mātūrissimus or mātūrrimus.
- 4. Five Adjectives in -ilis form the Superlative by adding -limus to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel. The Comparative is regular. Thus:—

facilis, easy,	facilior,	facillimus.
difficilis, difficult,	difficilior,	difficillimus.
similis, like,	simil ior,	simillimus.
dissimilis, unlike,	dissimilior,	dissimillimus.
humilis, low.	humilior,	humillimus.

5. Adjectives in -dicus, -ficus, and -volus, form the Comparative and Superlative as though from forms in -dicens, -ficens, -volens. Thus:—

maledicus, slanderous, maledīcentior, maledīcentissimus.
māgnificus, magnificent, māgnificentior, māgnificentissimus.
benevolus, kindly, benevolentior, benevolentissimus.

 a. Positives in -dīcēns and -volēns occur in early Latin; as, maledīcēns, benevolēns.

Irregular Comparison.

72. Several Adjectives vary the Stem in Comparison: viz. —

•		
bonus, good,	mel ior ,	opt imus.
malus, bad,	pē jor ,	pess imus .
parvus, small,	minor,	min imus .
māgnus, large,	mājor,	māx imus.
multus, much,	plūs,	plū rimus .
frūgī, thrifty,	frūgāl ior ,	frūgāl issimus.
nēquam, worthless,	nēqu ior,	nēqu issimus .

 Observe that the i of -ior becomes j — between vowels — in pējor and mājor.

Defective Comparison.

73. 1. Positive lacking entirely,—

(Cf. prae, in front of.)	prior, former,	pr īmus , <i>first</i> .
(Cf. citra, this side of.)	citerior, on this side,	citimus, near.
(Cf. ultrā, beyond.)	ulterior, farther,	ultimus, farthest.
(Cf. intrā, within.)	interior, inner,	intimus, inmost.
(Cf. prope, near.)	propior, nearer,	proximus, nearest.
(Cf. dē, down.)	dēterior, inferior,	dēterrimus, worst.
(Cf. archaic potis, possible.)	potior, preferable,	potissimus, chiefest.

2. Positive occurring only in special cases, -

```
posterō diē, annō, etc.,
the following day, etc.,
posterī, descendants,

exterī, foreigners,
nātionēs exterae, foreign nations,

posterior, later,
postumus, {latest, last.
postumus, {late-born, postumus, {posthumous.}}
exterīor, outer, extimus, outermost.
```

īnferī, gods of the lower world, Mare Īnferum, Mediterranean Sea,	inferior, lower,	infimus, lowest.
superī, gods above, Mare Superum, Adriatic Sea,	$\left. \left. ight. ight. ight. ight. ight. \left. \left. ight. i$	suprēmus, last. summus, highest.
3. Comparative lacking.		
vetus, old,	1	veterrimus.
fīdus, faithful,		fīd issimus.
novus, new,	2	novissimus,8 last.
sacer, sacred,		sacerrimus.
falsus. false.		falsissimus.

Also in some other words less frequently used.

4. Superlative lacking.

alacer, lively,	alacrior,	
ingēns, great,	ingent ior,	
salūtāris, wholesome,	salūtār ior ,	
juvenis, young,	jūn ior ,	4
senex, old,	senior.	5

a. The Superlative is lacking also in many adjectives in -ālis,
 -īlis, -īlis, -bilis, and in a few others.

Comparison by Magis and $M\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$.

- 74. Many adjectives do not admit terminational comparison, but form the Comparative and Superlative degrees by prefixing magis (more) and maxime (most). Here belong —
- Many adjectives ending in -ālis, -āris, -idus, -īlis, -icus, -imus, -īnus, -ōrus.
- 2. Adjectives in -us preceded by a vowel; as, 1doneus, adapted; arduus, steep; necessarius, necessary.
 - a. Adjectives in -quus, of course, do not come under this rule.

 The first u in such cases is not a vowel, but a consonant.

¹ Supplied by vetustior, from vetustus.

² Supplied by recentior.

⁸ For newest, recentissimus is used.

⁴ Supplied by minimus nātū.

⁵ Supplied by maximus natū.

Adjectives not admitting Comparison.

75. Here belong —

- I. Many adjectives which, from the nature of their signification, do not admit of comparison; as, hodiernus, of to-day; annuus, annual; mortālis, mortal.
 - 2. Some special words; as, mīrus, gnārus, merus; and a few others.

FORMATION AND COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

- 76. Adverbs are for the most part derived from adjectives, and depend upon them for their comparison.
- I. Adverbs derived from adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive by changing -I of the Genitive Singular to -B; those derived from adjectives of the Third Declension, by changing -is of the Genitive Singular to -iter; as, —

```
cārus, cārē, dearly;
pulcher, pulchrē, beautifully;
ācer, ācriter, fiercely;
levis, leviter, lightly.
```

a. But Adjectives in -ns, and a few others, add -ter (instead of -iter), to form the Adverb; as,—

```
sapiēns, sapienter, wisely;
audāx, audācter, boldly;
sollers, sollerter, skillfully.
```

2. The Comparative of all Adverbs regularly consists of the Accusative Singular Neuter of the Comparative of the Adjective; while the Superlative of the Adverb is formed by changing the -I of the Genitive Singular of the Superlative of the Adjective to -E. Thus—

(cārus) (pulcher) (ācer) (levis) (sapiēns)	cārē, dearly, pulchrē, beautifully, ācriter, fiercely, leviter, lightly, sapienter, wisely,	sapient ius ,	cārissimē. pulcherrimē. ācerrimē. levissimē. sapientissimē.
(audāx)	audāc ter , <i>boldly</i> ,	audāciu s,	audācissim ē .

Adverbs Peculiar in Comparison and Formation.

77. 1. beně, well, melius. optimë. malĕ, ill, pējus, pessimē. māximē. māgnopere, greatly, magis, multum, much, plūs, plūrimum. non multum,] little, minus. minimē. parum. diūtissimē. diū, long, diūtius. nēgu**issimē.** nēquiter, worthlessly, nēgu**ius**, saepe, often, saepius, saepissimē. mātūrrimē, mātūrē, betimes, mātūrius. mātūrissimē. proximē. prope, near, propius, nūperrimē. nuper, recently, potius, rather. potissimum, especially. { previously, } before, } prīmum, first. secus, otherwise, sētius. less.

2. A number of adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form an Adverb in -5, instead of -5; as, —

crēbrō, frequently; falsō, falsely; continuō, immediately; subitō, suddenly; rārō, rarely; and a few others.

a. cito, quickly, has -ŏ.

3. A few adjectives employ the Accusative Singular Neuter as the Positive of the Adverb; as,—

multum, much; minimum, least; paulum, little; facile, easily.

4. A few adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive in -iter; as, —

fīrmus, fīrmiter, firmly; hūmānus, hūmāniter, humanly; largus, largiter, copiously; alius, aliter, otherwise.

a. violentus has violenter.

 Various other adverbial suffixes occur, the most important of which are -tus and -tim; as, antiquitus, anciently; paulātim, gradually.

NUMERALS.

- 78. Numerals may be divided into -
- I. Numeral Adjectives, comprising
 - a. Cardinals; as, finus, one; duo, two; etc.
 - b. Ordinals; as, prīmus, first; secundus, second; etc.
 - c. Distributives; as, singuli, one by one; bini, two by two; etc.
- II. Numeral Adverbs; as, semel, once; bis, twice; etc.

79. TABLE OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

	CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	Adverss.
I.	ūnus, ūna, ūnum	prīmus, <i>first</i>	singuli, one by one	semel
2.	duo, duae, duo	secundus, second	bīnī, <i>two by two</i>	bis
3.	trēs, tria	tertius, third	ternī (trīnī)	ter
4.	quattuor	quārtus, fourth	quaternī	quater
5.	quinque	quintus, f.ftk	quini	quīnquiēs
6.	sex	sextus	sēnī	sexiēs
7.	septem	septimus	septēnī	septies
8.	octō	octāvus	octōni	octi ē s
9.	novem	nōnus	novēnī	noviēs
IO.	decem	decimus	dēnī	deciēs
II.	ũndecim	ūn decimus	ũndēnī	ūndeciēs
12.	duodecim	duodecimus	duod ēn ī	duodeci ē s
13.	tredecim	tertius decimus	ternî dênî	terdecies
14.	quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	quaternî d ēni	quaterdeciēs
15.	quindecim	quintus decimus	quīnī dē nī	quīnquies decies
16.	sēdecim }	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī	sexiēs deciēs
17.	septendecim	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī	septies decies
18.	duodēvīgintī	duodēvīcēsimus	duodēvīcēnī	octiēs deciēs
19.	ündēvīgintī	ūndēvīcēsimu s	ūndēvīc ē nī	novies decies
20.	vīgintī	vīcēsimus	vīcēnī	vīciēs
21.	vīgintī ūnus	vīcēsimus prīmus	vīcēni singulī	vīciēs semel
	ūnus et vīgintī	ūnus et vīcēsimus	singulī et vīcēnī)
22.	unus et viginu viginti duo duo et viginti	vīcēsimus secundus	vicēnī binī	vīciēs bis
		alter et vīcēsimus	bīnī et vīcēnī)
30.	trīgintā	trīcēsimus	trīcēnī	trīciēs
40.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimus	quadrāgēnī	quadrāgiēs
50.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsimus	quīnquāgēnī	quinquāgiēs
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēsimus	sexāgēnī	sexāgiēs
70.	septu āgintā	septuāgēsimus	s e ptuāgēnī	septuāgiēs
8 0.	octōgintā	octōgēsimus	octögēnī	octōgiēs
90.	nōnāgintā	nonāgēsimus	īnēgānõn	nōnāgiēs
I00.	centum	centēsimus	centēnī	centiës

	CARDINALS.	Ordinals.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	Adverss.
101.	centum ünus centum et ünus	centēsimus prīmus centēsimus et prīmus	centēnī singulī } centēnī et singulī }	centies semel
	ducentĩ, -ae, -a	ducentēsimus	ducēnī	ducenties
300.	trecentī	trecentēsimus	trecenī	trecenties
400.	quadringentî	quadringentēsimus	quadringēnī	quadringenties
500.	quīngentī	quīngentēsimus	quingēni	quīngentiēs
600.	sescentī	sescentēsimus	sescēnī	sescenties
700.	septingentī	septingentēsimus	septingēnī	se ptingenties
800.	octingentī	octingentēsimus	octingēnī	octingenties
900.	nöngentī	nongentēsimus	nöngēnī	nõngentiës
1,000.	mīlle	mīllēsimus	singula mīllia	mīlliēs
2,000.	duo mīllia	bis mīllēsimus	bīna mīllia	bis mīlliēs
100,000.	centum millia	centies mīllēsimus	centēna mīllia	centies mīllies
1,000,000.	decies centena	decies centies mille-	decies centena	decies centies
	mīllia	simus	mīllia	mīlliēs

Note. — -ēnsimus and -iēns are often written in the numerals instead of -ēsimus and -iēs.

Declension of the Cardinals.

- 80. 1. The declension of unus has already been given under § 66.
- 2. Duo is declined as follows: -

Nom.	duo	duae	duo
Gen.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum
Dat.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus
Acc.	duōs, duo	duās	duo
Abl.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus

- a. So ambō, both, except that its final o is long.
- 3. Trēs is declined, -

Nom.	trēs	tria
Gen.	trium	trium
Dat.	tribus	tribus
Acc.	trēs (trīs)	tria
Abl.	tribus	tribus

- 4. The hundreds (except centum) are declined like the Plural of bonus.
- 5. Mīlle is regularly an adjective in the Singular, and indeclinable. In the Plural it is a substantive (followed by the Genitive of the objects enumerated; § 201. 1), and is declined,—

Nom.	mīllia	Acc.	mīllia
Gen.	mīllium	Voc.	mīllia
Dat.	mīllibus	Abl.	mīllibus

Thus mille homines, a thousand men; but duo millia hominum, two thousand men, literally two thousands of men.

- a. Occasionally the Singular admits the Genitive construction;
 as, mīlle hominum.
- 6. Other Cardinals are indeclinable. Ordinals and Distributives are declined like Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.

Peculiarities in the Use of Numerals.

81. I. The compounds from 21 to 99 may be expressed either with the larger or the smaller numeral first. In the latter case, et is used. Thus:—

trīgintā sex or sex et trīgintā, thirty-six.

2. The numerals under 90, ending in 8 and 9, are often expressed by subtraction; as,—

duodēvīgintī, eighteen (but also octodecim);

undēquadrāgintā, thirty-nine (but also trīgintā novem or novem et trīgintā).

3. Compounds over 100 regularly have the largest number first; the others follow without et; as,—

centum viginti septem, one hundred and twenty-seven.

annō mīllēsimō octingentēsimō octōgēsimō secundō, in the year 1882.

Yet et may be inserted where the smaller number is either a digit or one of the tens; as,—

centum et septem, one hundred and seven; centum et quadrägintä, one hundred and forty.

- 4. The Distributives are used
 - a) To denote so many each, so many apiece; as,—
 bīna talenta iīs dedit, he gave them two talents each.
 - b) When those nouns that are ordinarily Plural in form, but Singular in meaning, are employed in a Plural sense; as,—bīnae litterae, two epistles.

But in such cases, unī (not singulī) is regularly employed for one, and trīnī (not ternī) for three; as,—

unae litterae, one epistle.

trīnae litterae, three epistles.
c) In multiplication; as,—

bis bina sunt quattuor, twice two are four.

C. PRONOUNS.

- 82. A Pronoun is a word that indicates something without naming it.
 - 83. There are the following classes of pronouns:—

I. Personal.
II. Reflexive.
III. Possessive.
IV. Demonstrative.
V. Intensive.
VI. Relative.
VII. Interrogative.
VIII. Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

84. These correspond to the English I, you, he, she, it, etc., and are declined as follows:—

First Person.	Second Person.	Third Person.
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. ego, I	tū, <i>thou</i>	is, he; ea, she; id, it
Gen. meī	tuī '	(For declension see § 87.)
Dat. mihi 1	tibi ¹	
Acc. mē	tē	
Voc. —	tū	
Abl. mē	tē	
	PLURAL.	
Nom. nos, we	vōs, <i>you</i>	
Can nostrum	∫ vestrum	
$Gen. \left\{ egin{array}{l} ext{nostrum} \ ext{nostri} \end{array} ight.$	{ vestrī	
Dat. nobīs	võbīs	
Acc. nos	võs	
Voc. —	võs	
Abl. nõbīs	vōbīs	

- 1. A Dative Singular mī occurs in poetry.
- 2. Emphatic forms in -met are occasionally found; as, egomet, I myself; tibimet, to you yourself; tū has tūte and tūtemet (written also tūtimet).

¹ The final 1 is sometimes long in poetry.

3. In early Latin, med and ted occur as Accusative and Ablative forms.

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

85. These refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they stand; like *myself*, yourself, in 'I see myself,' etc. They are declined as follows:—

	First Person.	Second Person.	Third Person.
	Supplied by oblique cases of ego.	Supplied by oblique cases of tū.	
Gen.	meī, of myself	tuī, of thyself	suī
Dat.	mihi, to myself	tibi, to thyself	sibi ¹
Acc.	mē, <i>myself</i>	tē, <i>thyself</i>	sē <i>or</i> sēsē
Voc.			
Abl.	mē, with myself, etc.	tē, with thyself, etc.	sē <i>or</i> sēsē

- 1. The Reflexive of the Third Person serves for all genders and for both numbers. Thus sul may mean, of himself, herself, itself, or of themselves; and so with the other forms.
- 2. All of the Reflexive Pronouns have at times a reciprocal force; as,—
 inter se pugnant, they fight with each other.
 - 3. In early Latin, sed occurs as Accusative and Ablative.

III. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

86. These are strictly adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, and are inflected as such. They are—

First Person.

Second Person.

meus, -a, -um, my;

tuus, -a, -um, thy;

noster, nostra, nostrum, our;

vester, vestra, vestrum, your;

Third Person.

suus, -a, -um, his, her, its, their.

1. Suus is exclusively Reflexive; as, -

pater suos liberos amat, the father loves his children.

Otherwise, his, her, its are regularly expressed by the Genitive Singular of is, viz. Sjus; and their, by the Genitive Plural, e5rum, e5rum.

¹ The final 1 is sometimes long in poetry.

- 2. The Vocative Singular Masculine of meus is mī.
- 3. The enclitic -pte may be joined to the Ablative Singular of the Possessive Pronouns for the purpose of emphasis. This is particularly common in case of suō, suā; as, suōpte, suāpte.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

87. These point out an object as here or there, or as previously mentioned. They are —

hīc, this (where I am);
iste, that (where you are);
ille, that (something distinct from the speaker);
is, that (weaker than ille);
Idem, the same.

HIC, iste, and ille are accordingly the Demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons respectively.

	Hīc.	this.
--	------	-------

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.			
M	ASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Nom.	hīc 1	haec	hōc	hī	hae	haec
Gen.	hūjus ²	hūjus	hūjus	hōrum	hārum	hōrum
Dat.	huic	huic	huic	hīs	hīs	hīs
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hōc	hōs	hās	haec
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc	hīs	hīs	hīs
	Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc.	MASCULINE. Nom. hīc¹ Gen. hūjus² Dat. huic Acc. hunc	MASCULINE. FEMININE. Nom. hīc¹ haec Gen. hūjus² hūjus Dat. huic huic Acc. hunc hanc	MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. Nom. hīc¹ haec hōc Gen. hūjus² hūjus hūjus Dat. huic huic huic Acc. hunc hanc hōc	Masculine. Feminine. Neuter. Masculine. Nom. $h\bar{i}c^1$ haec $h\bar{o}c$ $h\bar{i}$ Gen. $h\bar{u}jus^2$ $h\bar{u}jus$ $h\bar{o}rum$ Dat. huic huic $h\bar{i}s$ Acc. hunc hanc $h\bar{o}c$ $h\bar{o}s$	MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. Nom. $h\bar{u}c^1$ haec $h\bar{o}c$ $h\bar{u}$ hae Gen. $h\bar{u}jus^2$ $h\bar{u}jus$ $h\bar{u}jus$ $h\bar{u}jus$ $h\bar{o}rum$ $h\bar{a}rum$ Dat. $huic$ $huic$ $huic$ $h\bar{u}s$ $h\bar{s}s$ Acc. $hunc$ $hanc$ $h\bar{o}c$ $h\bar{o}s$ $h\bar{a}s$

Iste, that, that of yours.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.			
M	ASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Nom.	iste	ista	istud 8	istī	istae	ista 8
Gen.	istīus	istīus	istīus	istōrum	istārum	istōrum
Dat.	istī	istī	istī	istī s	istīs	istīs
Acc.	istum	istam	istud	istōs	istās	ista 8
Abl.	istō	istā	istō	istīs	istīs	istīs

Ille (archaic olle), that, that one, he, is declined like iste.4

¹ The vowel is sometimes short in poetry, — hic.

² Forms of hic ending in -s sometimes append -ce for emphasis; as, hūjusce, this ... here; hōsce, hisce. When -ne is added, -ce becomes -ci; as, hōscine.

⁸ For istud, istuc sometimes occurs; for ista, istaec.

^{*} For illud, illūc sometimes occurs.

	that.

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
M	ASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Nom.	is	ea	id	eī, iī, (ī)	eae	ea '
Gen.	ējus	ējus	ējus	e ōrum	eārum	eōrum
Dat.	eī	eī	eī	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs
Acc.	eum	eam	id	eōs	eās	ea
Abl.	еō	eā	еō	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eis, iis

Idem, the same.

	SI	NGULAR.			PLURAL.	
M	ASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Nom.	īdem	eadem	idem	{ eīdem } iīdem }	eaedem	eadem
Dat. Acc.	ējusdem eīdem eundem eōdem	eīdem eandem	eīdem idem	eīsdem	eārundem eīsdem eāsdem eīsdem	e īsdem

The Nom. Plu. Masc. also has Idem, and the Dat. Abl. Plu. Isdem or iIsdem

V. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN.

88. The Intensive Pronoun in Latin is ipse. It corresponds to the English myself, etc., in 'I myself, he himself.'

	S	SINGULAR	•		PLURAL.	
M	ASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Nom.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
Gen.	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsõrum	ipsārum	ipsõrum
Dat.	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
Abl.	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

VI. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

89. The Relative Pronoun is quī, who. It is declined:—

	S	INGULAR	,		PLURAL.	
M	ASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	Neuter.
Nom.	quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae
Gen.	cūjus	cūjus	cūjus	quōrum	quārum	quõrum
Dat.	cui	cui	cui	quibus 2	quibus 2	quibus 2
Acc.	quem	quam	quod	quõs	quās	quae
Abl.	quõ 1	quā 1	quō 1	quibus 2	quibus 2	quibus 2

¹ An Ablative qui occurs in quicum.

² Sometimes quis.

VII. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

90. The Interrogative Pronouns are quis, who? (substantive) and qui, what? what kind of? (adjective).

I. Quis, who?

	SINGULA	R.	PLURAL.
	MASC. AND FEM.	NEUTER.	Wanting.
Nom.	quis	quid	
Gen.	cūjus	cūjus	
Dat.	cui	cui	
Acc.	quem	quid	
Abl.	quō	quō	

- 2. quī, what? what kind of? is declined precisely like the Relative Pronoun; vis. quī, quae, quod, etc.
 - a. An old Ablative qui occurs, in the sense of how?
 - b. Qui is sometimes used for quis in Indirect Questions.
 - c. Quis, when limiting words denoting persons, is sometimes an adjective. But in such cases quis homō = what man? whereas qui homō = what sort of a man?
 - d. Quis and qui may be strengthened by adding -nam. Thus:—Substantive. quisnam, who, pray? quidnam, what, pray? Adjective. quinam, quaenam, quodnam, of what kind, pray?

VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

91. These have the general force of some one, any one.

SUBS		ADJECT	IVES.	
M. AND F.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
quis,	quid, anyone, anything.	quī,	quae or qua,	quod, any.
aliquis,	aliquid, someone, something.	aliquī	aliqua,	aliquod, any.
quisquam,	quidquam, anyone, anything.	No corresp	onding adjecti	ve.
quispiam,	quidpiam, anyone, anything.	quispiam	, quaepiam,	quodpiam, any.
quisque,	quidque, each.	quisque,	quaeque,	quodque, each.
	quidvīs, anyone, anything you wish.		quaevīs, quaelibet,	quodvīs, $\begin{cases} any \\ you \\ wish. \end{cases}$
quidam, quaedam	quiddam, $\begin{cases} a \ certain \\ person, \\ or thing. \end{cases}$	quīdam,	quaedam,	quoddam, { a cer-

- 1. In the Indefinite Pronouns, only the pronominal part is declined. Thus: Genitive Singular alicūjus, cūjuslibet, etc.
- 2. Note that aliqui has aliqua in the Nominative Singular Feminine, also in the Nominative and Accusative Plural Neuter. Qui has both qua and quae in these same cases.
- 3. Quīdam forms Accusative Singular quendam, quandam; Genitive Plural quōrundam, quārundam; the m being assimilated to n before d.
- 4. Aliquis may be used adjectively, and (occasionally) aliquī substantively.
- 5. In combination with ne, sī, nisi, num, either quis or quī may stand as a Substantive. Thus: sī quis or sī quī.
- 6. Ecquis, anyone, though strictly an Indefinite, generally has interrogative force. It has both substantive and adjective forms,—substantive, ecquis, ecquid; adjective, ecqui, ecquae and ecqua, ecquod.
 - 7. Quisquam is not used in the Plural.
- 8. There are two Indefinite Relatives, quīcumque and quisquis, whoever. Quīcumque declines only the first part; quisquis declines both, but has only quisquis, quidquid, quōquō in common use.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

- 92. The following adjectives, also, frequently have pronominal force:—
 - 1. alius, another; alter, the other;
 uter, which of two? (interr.); neuter, neither;
 whichever of two (rel.);
 ūnus, one; nūllus, no one (in oblique cases).
 - 2. The compounds, --

uterque, utraque, utrumque, each of two; utercumque, utracumque, utrumcumque, whoever of two; uterlibet, utralibet, utrumlibet, either one you please; utervis, utravis, utrumvis, either one you please; alteruter, alterutra, alterutrum, the one or the other.

In these, uter alone is declined. The rest of the word remains unchanged, except in case of alteruter, which may decline both parts; as,—

Nom. alteruter altera utra alterum utrum Gen. alterius utrīus etc.

1

CHAPTER II. — Conjugation.

- 93. The Inflection of Verbs is called Conjugation.
- 94. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person:
 - I. Two Voices, Active and Passive.
 - 2. Three Moods, Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative.
 - 3. Six Tenses, —

Present, Perfect,
Imperfect, Pluperfect,
Future, Future Perfect.

But the Subjunctive lacks the Future and Future Perfect; while the Imperative employs only the Present and Future.

- 4. Two Numbers, Singular and Plural.
- 5. Three Persons, First, Second, and Third.
- 95. These make up the so-called *Finite Verb*. Besides this, we have the following Noun and Adjective Forms:—
 - 1. Noun Forms, Infinitive, Gerund, and Supine.
 - 2. Adjective Forms, Participles (including the Gerundive).
 - 96. The Personal Endings of the Verb are,—

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PASSIVE.
Sing. I. -ō; -m; -ī (Perf. Ind.);
                                           -r.
      2. -s; -stī (Perf. Ind.); -tō or
                                           -ris, -re; -re, -tor (Impv.).
            wanting (Impv.);
      3. -t; -tō (Impv.);
                                           -tur; -tor (Impv.).
Plu. I. -mus;
                                           -mur.
      2. -tis; -stis (Perf. Ind.); -te,
                                           -minī.
            -tote (Impv.);
      3. -nt; -erunt (Perf. Ind.); -nto
                                          -ntur; -ntor (Impv.).
            (Impv.);
```

VERB-STEMS.

97. Conjugation consists in appending certain endings to the Stem We distinguish three different stems in a fully inflected verb,—

- I. Present Stem. from which are formed
 - 1. Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative,
 - 2. Present and Imperfect Subjunctive,

Active and Pas-

3. The Imperative,

- 4. The Present Infinitive.
- 5. The Present Active Participle, the Gerund, and Gerundive.
- II. Perfect Stem, from which are formed
 - 1. Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative,
 - 2. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive,
 - 3. Perfect Infinitive.

III. Participial Stem, from which are formed -

- 1. Perfect Participle,
- Perfect Participie,
 Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative, Passive.
- 3. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive,
- 4. Perfect Infinitive,

Apparently from the same stem, though really of different origin, are the Supine, the Future Active Participle, the Future Infinitive Active and Passive.

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

98. There are in Latin four regular Conjugations, distinguished from each other by the vowel of the termination of the Present Infinitive Active, as follows: -

Conjugation.	Infinitive Termination.	Distinguishing Vowel.
I.	-āre	ā
II.	-ēre	ē
III.	-ĕre	ĕ
IV.	-īre	ī

99. Principal Parts. The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and the Perfect Participle¹ constitute the Principal Parts of a Latin verb, - so called because they contain the different stems, from which the full conjugation of the verb may be derived.

¹ Where the Perfect Participle is not in use, the Future Active Participle, it is occurs, is given as one of the Principal Parts.

	CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	ADVERBS.
юі. {	centum ūnus centum et ūnus	centēsimus prīmus centēsimus et prīmus	centēnī singulī } centēnī et singulī }	centies semel
200.	ducenti, -ae, -a	ducentēsimus	ducēnī	ducenties
300.	trecentī	trecentēsimus	trecēnī	trecenties
400.	quadringentî	quadringentēsimus	quadringēnī	quadringenties
500.	quingenti	quīngentēsimus	quingēni	quīngentiēs
600.	sescentī	sescentēsimus	sescēnī	sescentiës
700.	septingentī	septingentēsimus	septingēnī	septingenties
800.	octingentī	octingentēsimus	octingēnī	octingenties
900.	nöngentï	nōngentēsimus	nongeni	nõngenties
1,000.	mīlle	mīllēsimus	singula mīllia	mīlliēs
2,000.	duo mīllia	bis mīllēsimus	bīna mīllia	bis mīlliēs
100,000.	centum mīllia	centies mīllesimus	centēna mīllia	centies mīllies
1,000,000.	decies centena	deciës centiës mīllē-	decies centena	decies centies
	mīllia	simus	mīllia	mīlliēs

Note. — -ēnsimus and -iēns are often written in the numerals instead of -ēsimus and -iēs.

Declension of the Cardinals.

- 80. 1. The declension of unus has already been given under § 66.
- 2. Duo is declined as follows: -

Nom.	duo	duae	duo
Gen.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum
Dat.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus
Acc.	duōs, duo	duās	duo
Abl.	duōbus	duābu s	duōbus

- a. So ambō, both, except that its final o is long.
- 3. Tres is declined, -

Nom.	trēs	tria
Gen.	trium	trium
Dat.	tribus	tribus
Acc.	trēs (trīs)	tria
Abl.	tribus	tribus

- 4. The hundreds (except centum) are declined like the Plural of bonus.
- 5. Mīlle is regularly an adjective in the Singular, and indeclinable. In the Plural it is a substantive (followed by the Genitive of the objects enumerated; § 201. 1), and is declined,—

Nom.	mīllia	Acc.	mīllia
Gen.	mīllium	Voc.	mīllia
Dat.	mīllibus	Abl.	eudillīm

Thus mille homines, a thousand men; but duo millia hominum, two thousand men, literally two thousands of men.

- a. Occasionally the Singular admits the Genitive construction;
 as, mīlle hominum.
- 6. Other Cardinals are indeclinable. Ordinals and Distributives are declined like Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.

Peculiarities in the Use of Numerals.

81. I. The compounds from 21 to 99 may be expressed either with the larger or the smaller numeral first. In the latter case, et is used. Thus:—

trīgintā sex or sex et trīgintā, thirty-six.

2. The numerals under 90, ending in 8 and 9, are often expressed by subtraction; as,—

duodēvīgintī, eighteen (but also octōdecim);

undēquadrāgintā, thirty-nine (but also trīgintā novem or novem et trīgintā).

3. Compounds over 100 regularly have the largest number first; the others follow without et; as,—

centum viginti septem, one hundred and twenty-seven.

annō mīllēsimō octingentēsimō octōgēsimō secundō, in the year 1882.

Yet et may be inserted where the smaller number is either a digit or one of the tens; as, —

centum et septem, one hundred and seven; centum et quadrāgintā, one hundred and forty.

- 4. The Distributives are used
 - a) To denote so many each, so many apiece; as,—
 bīna talenta iīs dedit, he gave them two talents each.
 - b) When those nouns that are ordinarily Plural in form, but Singular in meaning, are employed in a Plural sense; as, bīnae litterae, two epistles.

But in such cases, uni (not singuli) is regularly employed for one, and trini (not terni) for three; as,—

unae litterae, one epistle.

trīnae litterae, three epistles.

c) In multiplication; as,—
bis bina sunt quattuor, twice two are four.

FIRST (OR $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ -) CONJUGATION.

101.

Active Voice. - Amo, I love.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf. am**āre** Perf. Ind. am**āvī** Perf. Pass. Partic.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

amō, I love, amās, you love, amat, he loves; PLURAL. am**āmus**, we love, am**ātis**, you love, amant, they love.

IMPERFECT.

amābam, I was loving, amābās, you were loving, amābat, he was loving; amābāmus, we were loving, amābātis, you were loving, amābant, they were loving.

FUTURE.

amābō, I shall love, amābis, you will love, amābit, he will love; amābimus, we shall love, amābitis, you will love, amābunt, they will love.

PERFECT.

amāvī, I have loved, I loved, amāvistī, you have loved, you loved, amāvimus, we have loved, we loved, amāvistis, you have loved, you loved,

amāvit, he has loved, he loved;

amāvērunt, -ēre, they have loved, they loved.

PLUPERFECT.

amāveram, I had loved, amāverās, you had loved, amāverat, he had loved; amāverātis, you had loved, amāverātis, you had loved, amāverant, they had loved.

FUTURE PERFECT.

amāverō, I shall have loved, amāveris, you will have loved, amāverit, he will have loved: amāverimus, we shall have loved, amāveritis, you will have loved, amāverint, they will have loved.

PRESENT.

singular. amem, may I love, amēs, may you love, amet, let him love;

amēmus, let us love, amētis, may you love, ament, let them love.

IMPERFECT.

amārem, I should love, amārēs, you would love, amāret, he would love; amārēmus, we should love, amārētis, you would love, amārent, they would love.

PERFECT.

amāverim, I may have loved, amāveris, you may have loved, amāverit, he may have loved; amāverimus, we may have loved, amāveritis, you may have loved, amāverint, they may have loved.

PLUPERFECT.

amāvissem, I should have loved, amāvissēs, you would have loved, amāvisset, he would have loved; amāvissēmus, we should have loved, amāvissētis, you would have loved, amāvissent, they would have loved.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amā, love thou;

Fut. amātō, thou shalt love, amātō, he shall love;

am**āte**, *love ye*.

amātōte, ye shall love, amantō, they shall love.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. amare, to love.

Perf. amavisse, to have loved.

Fut. amaturus esse, to be about to love.

Pres. amāns, loving. (Gen. amantis)

Fut. amātūrus, about to love.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. amandi, of loving,

Dat. amando, for loving,

Acc. amandum, loving, Acc. amātum, to love,

Abl. amando, by loving. Abl. amatū, to love, be loved.

¹ For declension of amans, see § 70.3.

FIRST (OR A-) CONJUGATION.

102. Passive Voice. — Amor, I am loved.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf. am**ārī** Perf. Ind. am**ātus sum**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. am**or** am**āris** I am loved.

am**āmu**r am**āminī** am**antur**

PLURAL.

am**ātur**

Imperfect.

I was loved.

amābar amābāris, *or* -re amābātur amābāmur amābāminī amābantur

FUTURE.

I shall be loved.

amābor amāberis, or -re amābitur amābimur amābiminī amābuntur

PERFECT.

I have been loved or I was loved.

amāt**us (-a, -**u**m**) **sum** ¹

amāt**ī (-ae, -a) sum**us

amātus es amātus est amātī estis amātī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been loved.

amātus eram ¹ amātus erās amātus erat amāt**ī erāmus** amāt**ī erātis** amāt**ī erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been loved.

amātus erō ¹ amātī erimus amātus eris amātī eritis amātus erit amātī erunt

¹ Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc. So fueram, fueras, etc., for eram, etc.; fuero, etc., for ero, etc.

PRESENT.

May I be loved, let him be loved.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL,
amer	am ēmur
amēris, or -re	am ēminī
amētur	amentur

IMPERFECT.

I should be loved, he would be loved.

amārer	am ārēmur
amārēris, <i>or</i> -re	am ārēminī
am ārētur	am ärentur

PERFECT.

I may have been loved.

amāt us sim ¹	amāt ī sīmus
amātu s sīs	amāt ī sītis
amāt us sit	amāt ī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been loved, he would have been loved.

amātus essem 1	amāt ī essēmus
amā tus essēs	amāt ī essētis
amāt us esset	amāt ī esse nt

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amare, be thou loved; am	āminī, be ye loved.
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Fut. amator, thou shalt be loved,

amator, he shall be loved; amantor, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. amarī, to be loved.

Perf. amatus esse, to have been Perfect. amatus, having been loved.

Fut. amātum īrī, to be about to Gerundive. amandus, to be loved,
be loved.

deserving to be loved.

¹ Fuerim, etc., are sometimes used for sim; so fulssom, etc., for ossom.

SECOND (OR $\bar{\mathbf{E}}$ -) CONJUGATION.

103.

Active Voice. - Moneo, I advise.

1

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf. monëre

Perf. Ind. monuī Perf. Pass. Partic.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. moneō monēs monet

I advise.

PLURAL. mon**ēmus** mon**ētis** mon**ent**

IMPERFECT.

I was advising, or I advised.

monēbam monēbās monēbat

monēbāmus monēbātis monēbant

FUTURE.

I shall advise.

monēbis monēbis monēbit

mon**ēbimus** mon**ēbitis** mon**ēbunt**

PERFECT.

I have advised, or I advised.

monuī monuistī monuit

monuimus monuistis monuērunt, or -ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had advised.

monueram monueras monuerat

monuerāmus monuerātis monuerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have advised.

monuero monueris monuerit

monuerimus monueritis monuerint

PRESENT.

May I advise, let him advise.

PLURAL. SINGULAR. mon**eāmus** moneam mon**eās** mon**eātis** moneant moneat

IMPERFECT.

I should advise, he would advise.

monērem mon**ērēmus** monērēs monērētis monēret mon**ērent**

PERFECT.

I may have advised.

monuerim monuerimus monueris monu**eritis** monuerit monuerint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have advised, he would have advised. monuissem monu**issēmus** monuissēs monuissētis monuisset monuissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. mone, advise thou; monēte, advise ye.

Fut. monēto, thou shalt advise, monētote, ye shall advise, monētō, he shall advise; monento, they shall advise.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. monere, to advise. Pres. monens, advising. Perf. monuisse, to have advised. (Gen. monentis.)

Fut. moniturus esse, to be about Fut. monitūrus, about to advise.

to advise.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. monendi, of advising,

Dat. monendo, for advising,

Acc. monendum, advising, Acc. monitum, to advise.

Abl. monendo, by advising Abl. monita, to advise, be advised

SECOND (OR E-) CONJUGATION.

104. Passive Voice. — Moneor, I am advised.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf. mon**ērī** Perf. Ind. monitus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. mon**eor** mon**ēris** mon**ētur** I am advised. PLURAL, mon**ēmur** mon**ēminī**

monentur

IMPERFECT.

I was advised.

monēbāris, or -re monēbātur monēbāmur monēbāminī monēbantur

FUTURE.

I shall be advised.

mon**ēbor** mon**ēberis**, *or-*re mon**ēbitur** monēbimur monēbiminī monēbuntur

PERFECT.

I have been advised, I was advised.

monitus sum monitus es monitus est monitī sumus monitī estis monitī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been advised.

monitus eram monitus erās monitus erat monit**ī erāmus** monit**ī erātis** monit**ī erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been advised.

monitus erō monitī erimus
monitus eris monitī eritis
monitus erit monitī erunt

PRESENT.

May I be advised, let him be advised.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
monear	mon eāmur
moneāris, or -re	mon eāminī
moneātur	mon eantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be advised, he would be advised.

mon ërer	mon ārēmur
monēr ēris , <i>or</i> -re	mon ērēminī
monērētur	monērentur

PERFECT.

I may have been advised.

monit us sim	monit ī sīmus
monit us sīs	monit ī sītis
monitus sit	monit ī sint

PLUPERFECT.

'I should have been advised, he would have been advised.

monitus essem	monit ī essēmus
monitus essēs	monit ī essētis
monitus esset	monit I essent

IMPERATIVE.

Fut. monëtor, thou shalt be ad-	
vised,	
mon ētor , he shall be advised.	monentor, they shall be advised.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monere, be thou advised:

PARTICIPLE.

monēminī, be ve advised.

	monērī, to be advised. monitus esse, to have been	Perfect.	monitus, advised.
	advised.	Gerundive.	monendus, to be ad-
Fut.	monitum Irī, to be about to		vised, deserving to
	be advised.		be advised.

THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION.

105.

Active Voice. - Rego, I rule.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. reg**ō** Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. rēxī Perf. Pass. Partic. rēctus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular, reg**ō** regis regit I rule.

regimus regitis regunt

IMPERFECT.

I was ruling, or I ruled.

reg**ēbam** reg**ēbās** reg**ēbat** reg**ēbāmus** reg**ēbātis** reg**ēbant**

FUTURE.

I shall rule.

reg**am** reg**ēs** reg**et** reg**ēmus** reg**ētis** reg**ent**

PERFECT.

I have ruled, or I ruled.

rēx**ī** rē**xistī** rēxit rēx**imus** rēx**istis**

rēxērunt, or -ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had ruled.

rēxeram rēxerās rēxerat rēx**erāmus** rēx**erātis** rēx**erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have ruled.

rēxerō *rē*xeris *rē*xerit rēx**erimus** rēx**eritis** rēx**erint**

PRESENT.

May I rule, let him rule.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.
regam regāmus
regās regātis
regat regant

IMPERFECT.

I should rule, he would rule.

regerēm regerēmus
regerēs regerētis
regeret regerent

PERFECT.

I may have ruled.

rēxerim rēxerimus rēxerits rēxerit rēxerint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have ruled, he would have ruled.

rēxissem rēxissēmus rēxissētis rēxisset rēxissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. rege, rule thou; regite, rule ye.

Fut. regitō, thou shalt rule, regitōte, ye shall rule, regitō, he shall rule; reguntō, they shall rule.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. regere, to rule.

Pres. regens, ruling.

Perf. rexisse, to have ruled.

(Gen. regents.)

Fut. rēctūrus esse, to be about Fut. rēctūrus, about to rule.

to rule.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. regendi, of ruling,

Dat. regendo, for ruling,

Acc. regendum, ruling, Acc. rectum, to rule,

Abl. regendo, by ruling. Abl. rectū, to rule, be ruled.

THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION.

106. Passive Voice. — Regor, I am ruled.

PRINCIPAL 1	PΔ	۱R	TS.
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Pres. Ind. regor

Pres. Inf. reg**ī** Perf. Ind. rēctus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. reg**or** reg**eris** reg**itur** I am ruled. PLURAL, regimur

regiminī reguntur

IMPERFECT.

I was ruled.

regēbāris, or -re regēbātur reg**ēbāmur** reg**ēbāminī**

reg**ebam**ını reg**ebantur**

FUTURE.

I shall be ruled.

reg**āris**, *or* -re reg**ētur** reg**ēmur** reg**ēminī** re**gentur**

PERFECT.

I have been ruled, or I was ruled.

rēctus sum rēctus es rēctus est rēct**ī sumus** rēct**ī estis** rēct**ī sunt**

PLUPERFECT.

I had been ruled.

rēctus eram rēctus erās rēctus erat rēct**ī erāmus** rēct**ī erātis** rēct**ī erant**

rēctī erimus

rēctī eritis

rēctī erunt

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been ruled.

rēctus erō rēctus eris rēctus erit

PRESENT.

May I be ruled, let him be ruled.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
regar	reg āmur
reg āris , <i>or</i> -re	reg āminī
regātur	regantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be ruled, he would be ruled.

reg erer	reg erēmur
reg erēris, <i>or</i> -re	reg erēminī
regerētur	reg erentu r

PERFECT.

I may have been ruled.

rēctus sim	rēct ī sīmus
rēc tus sīs	rēct ī sītis
rēctus sit	rēct ī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been ruled, he would have been ruled.

rēctus essem	rēct ī essēmus
rēctus essēs	rēct ī essētis
rēctus esset	rēct ī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. regere, be thou ruled;	regimin ï , be ye ruled.

Fut. regitor, thou shalt be ruled,
regitor, he shall be ruled; reguntor, they shall be ruled.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

rēctus, ruled.

Pres.	regī,	to	be	ruled.
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Perf.	rēct us	esse,	to	have	been	Perfect.
		,				Carren die

ruled.	Gerundive. regendus, to be ruled,
Fut. rectum Iri, to be about to	deserving to be
be ruled.	ruled.

FOURTH (OR I-) CONJUGATION.

107. Active Voice. — Audiō, I hear.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Perf. Pass. Partic. audiō audire audivi auditus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. I hear. Plural.
audiō audīmus
audīs audītis
audit audiunt

IMPERFECT.

I was hearing, or I heard.

audiēbām audiēbāmus audiēbās audiēbātis audiēbat audiēbant

FUTURE.

I shall hear.

audiam audiēmus audiēs audiētis audiet audient

PERFECT.

I have heard, or I heard.

 audīvī
 audīvimus

 audīvistī
 audīvistis

 audīvit
 audīvērunt, or -ēre

Pluperfect.

I had heard.

audīveram audīverāmus audīverāts audīverat audīverant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have heard.

audīverō audīverimus
audīveris audīveritis
audīverit audīverint

PRESENT.

May I hear, let him hear.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.
audiam audiāmus
audiās audiātis
audiat audiant

IMPERFECT.

I should hear, he would hear.

audīrem audīrēmus audīrētis audīret audīret

PERFECT.

I may have heard.

audīverim audīverimus audīveritis audīverit audīverint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have heard, he would have heard.

audīvissem audīvissēmus audīvissēs audīvissētis audīvisset audīvissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audī, hear thou; audīte, hear ye.

Fut. audītō, thou shalt hear, audītōte, ye shall hear, audītō, he shall hear; audiuntō, they shall hear.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. audīre, to hear.

Perf. audīvisse, to have heard.

Fut. audītūrus esse, to be about

Fut. audītūrus, about to hear.

to hear.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. audiendl, of hearing, Dat. audiendo, for hearing,

Acc. audiendum, hearing, Acc. auditum, to hear,

Abl. audiendo, by hearing. Abl. audita, to hear, be heard.

FOURTH (OR I-) CONJUGATION.

108. Passive Voice. — Audior, I am heard.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf. aud**īrī** Perf. Ind. aud**ītus sum**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. aud**ior** aud**iris** aud**itur** I am heard.

PLURAL.

audimur

audimini

audiuntur

IMPERFECT.

I was heard.

audiēbāris, or -re audiēbātur audiēbāmur audiēbāminī audiēbantur

FUTURE.

I shall be heard.

audiāris, or -re audiētur audi**ēmur** audi**ēminī** audi**entu**r

PERFECT.

I have been heard, or I was heard.

audītus sum audītī sumus audītus es audītī estis audītus est audītī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been heard.

audītus eramaudītī erāmusaudītus erāsaudītī erātisaudītus erataudītī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been heard.

audītus erō audītī erimus audītus eris audītī eritis audītus erit audītī erunt

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
audiar	audi āmu r
audiāris, <i>or</i> -re	audi āminī
aud iātur	aud iantu r

IMPERFECT.

I should be heard, he would be heard.

audirer	aud īrēmu r
audīrēris, or -re	aud īrēminī
audīrētur	aud īrentur

PERFECT.

I may have been heard.

audīt us sim	audīt ī sīmus
audīt us sīs	audīt ī sītis
audītu s sit	audīt ī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been heard, he would have been heard.

audītu s essem	audīt ī essēmus
audīt us essēs	audīt ī essētis
audītus esset	audīt ī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audire, be thou heard;	aud imini , be ye heard.
Fut. auditor, thou shalt be heard,	
audItor, he shall be heard;	audiuntor, they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

res.	audīrī, to be heard.		
Perf.	audītus esse, to have been	Perfect.	audītu s , <i>heard</i> .
-	heard.	Gerundive.	audiendus, to be
Fut.	audītum īrī, to be about to		heard, deserving
	be heard.		to be heard.

VERBS IN -IO OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

- 109. I. Verbs in -15 of the Third Conjugation take the endings of the Fourth Conjugation, wherever the latter endings have two successive vowels. This occurs only in the Present System.
 - 2. Here belong
 - a) capiō, to take; cupiō, to desire; faciō, to make; fodiō, to dig; fugiō, to flee; jaciō, to throw; pariō, to bear; quatiō, to shake; rapiō, to seize; sapiō, to taste.
 - b) Compounds of lacio and specio (both ante-classical); as, allicio, entice; conspicio, behold.
 - c) The deponents gradior, to go; morior, to die; patior, to suffer.

110. Active Voice. — Capiō, I take.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. capiō, Pres. Inf. capere, Perf. Ind. cēpī, Perf. Pass. Partic. captus.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PRESENT TENSE. PLURAL.

capiō, capis, capit;

capimus, capitis, capiunt.

IMPERFECT.

capiēbam, -iebās, -iebat;

capiēbāmus, -iēbātis, -iēbant.

FUTURE.

capiam, -iēs, -iet;

capiēmus, -iētis, -ient.

PERFECT.

cēpī, -istī, -it;

cēpimus, -istis, -ērunt, or ēre.

PLUPERFECT.

cēperam, -erās, -erat;

cēperāmus, -erātis, -erant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

cēperō, -eris, -erit;

cēperimus, -eritis, -erint.

PRESENT. SINGULAR. PLURAL. capiam, -iās, -iat;

capiāmus, -iātis, -iant.

IMPERFECT.

caperem, -eres, -eret: caperēmus, -erētis, -erent.

PERFECT.

cēperim, -eris, -erit; cēperimus, -eritis, -erint.

PLUPER FECT.

cēpissem, -issēs, -isset; cēpissēmus, -issētis, -issent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. cape; capite. Fut. capito, capitote. capitō; capiuntō.

> INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. capere. Pres. capiens.

Perf. cēpisse.

Fut. captūrus esse. Fut. captūrus.

GERUND. SUPINE.

Gen. capiendī,

Dat. capiendō,

Acc. capiendum, captum, Acc. Abl. capiendo. Abl. captū.

111. Passive Voice. — Capior, I am taken.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. capior. captus sum. capī,

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. SINGULAR. PLURAL.

capior, caperis, capitur; capimur, capiminī, capiuntur.

IMPERFECT.

capiēbar, -iēbāris, -iēbātur; capiēbāmur, -iēbāminī, iēbantur.

FUTURE.

capiar, -iēris, -iētur; capiēmur, -iēminī, -ientur. SINGULAR.

PERFECT.

PLURAL.

captus sum, es, est;

captī sumus, estis, sunt.

PLUPERFECT.

captus eram, erās, erat;

captī erāmus, erātis, erant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

captus erō, eris, erit;

captī erimus, eritis, erunt.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

capiar, -iāris, -iātur;

capiāmur, -iāminī, -iantur.

IMPERFECT.

caperer, -erēris, -erētur;

caperēmur, -erēminī, -erentur.

PERFECT.

captus sim, sīs, sit;

captī sīmus, sītis, sint.

PLUPERFECT.

captus essem, essēs, esset;

captī essēmus, essētis, essent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. capere;

capiminī.

Fut. capitor,

capitor;

capiuntor.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. capī.

Perf. captus esse.

Perfect.

captus.

Fut. captum īrī.

Gerundive. capiendus.

DEPONENT VERBS.

- 112. Deponent Verbs have in the main Passive forms with Active meaning. But
 - a. They have the following Active forms: Future Infinitive, Present and Future Participles, Gerund, and Supine.
 - b. They have the following Passive meanings: always in the Gerundive, and sometimes in the Perfect Passive Participle; as.—

sequendus, to be followed; adeptus, attained.

113. Paradigms of Deponent Verbs are -

I. Conj. mīror, mīrārī, mīrātus sum, admire.

II. Conj. vereor, vererī, veritus sum, fear.

III. Conj. sequor, sequi, secutus sum, follow.

IV. Conj. largior, largiri, largitus sum, give.

III. (in ior) patior, pati, passus sum, suffer.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	III (in - ior).
Pres.	mīror	vereor	sequor	largior	patior
	mīrāris	verēris	sequeris	largīris	pateris
	mīrātur	verëtur	sequitur	largītu r	patitur
	mīrāmur	verēmur	sequimur	largīmur	patimur
	mīrāminī	verēminī	sequiminī	largīminī	patiminī
	mīrantur	verentur	sequuntur	largiuntur	patiuntur
Impf.	mīrābar	verēbar	sequēbar	largiēbar	patiebar
Fut.	mīrābor	verēbor	sequar	largiar	patiar
Perf.	mīrātus su m	veritus sum	secūtus sum	largītus sum	passus sum
Plup.	mīrātus eram	veritus eram	secūtus eram	largītus eram	passus eram
F. P.	mīrātus erō	veritus erō	secūtus erō	largītus erō	passus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.	mirer	verear	sequar	largiar	patiar
Impf.	mīrārer	verērer	sequerer	largirer	paterer
Perf.	mīrātus sim	veritus sim	secūtus sim	largītus sim	passus sim
Plup.	mīrātus essem	veritus essem	secūtus essem	largītus essem	passus essem

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	mīrāre	verere	sequere	largīre	patere
Fut.	mīrātor	verētor	sequitor	largitor	patitor

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	mīrārī	ver ērī	sequi	largīrī	patī
Perf.	mīrātus esse	veritus esse	secutus esse	largītus esse	passus esse
Fut.	mīrātūrus esse	veritūrus esse	secūtūrus esse	largītūrus esse	passūrus esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	mīrāns	verēns	sequēns	largiēns	patien s
Fut.	mīrātūrus	veritūrus	secūtūrus	largītūrus	passūrus
Perf.	mīrātus	veritus	secūtus	largītus	passus
Ger.	mīrandus	verendus	sequendus	largiendus	patiendus

GERUND.

mīrandī,	verendī	sequendī	largiendī	patiendī
mīrandō, etc.	verendō, <i>etc</i> .	sequendõ, etc.	largiendō, etc.	patiendo, etc.

SUPINE.

mīrātum, -tū veritum, -tū secūtum, -tū largītum, -tū passum, -sū.

SEMI-DEPONENTS.

114. I. Semi-Deponents are verbs which have the Present System in the Active Voice, but the Perfect System in the Passive without change of meaning. Here belong—

audeō, audēre, ausus sum, to dare.
gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvīsus sum, to rejoice.
soleō, solēre, solitus sum, to be wont.
fīdō, fīdere, fīsus sum, to trust.

2. The following verbs have a Perfect Passive Participle with Active meaning: —

adolēscē, grow up; adultus, having grown up. cēnāre, dine; cēnātus, having dined.

placere, please; placitus, having pleased, agreeable.

prandēre, lunch; prānsus, having lunched. pōtāre, drink; pōtus, having drunk. jūrāre, swear; jūrātus, having sworn.

a. Jūrātus is used in a passive sense also.

3. Revertor and devertor both regularly form their Perfect in the Active Voice; viz. —

revertor, revertī (Inf.), revertī (Perf.), to return. dēvertor, dēvertī (Inf.), dēvertī (Perf.), to turn aside.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

115. There are two Periphrastic Conjugations,—the Active and the Passive. The Active is formed by combining the Future Active Participle with the auxiliary sum, the Passive by combining the Gerundive with the same auxiliary.

Active Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. amātūrus (-a, -um) sum, I am about to love.

Imp. amātūrus eram, I was about to love.

Fut. amātūrus erō, I shall be about to love.

Perf. amātūrus fui, I have been (was) about to love.

Plup. amātūrus fueram, I had been about to love. Fut. P. amātūrus fuero, I shall have been about to love.

Pres.	amātūrus sin). I may	he about to lov	e.

- Imp. amaturus essem, I might be about to love.
- Perf. amaturus fuerim, I may have been about to love.
- Plup. amaturus fuissem, I might have been about to love.

INFINITIVE.

- Pres. amaturus esse, to be about to love.
- Perf. amaturus fuisse, to have been about to love.

Passive Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE.

- Pres. amandus (-a, -um) sum, I am to be loved, must be loved.
- Imp. amandus eram, I was to be loved.
- Fut. amandus ero, I shall deserve to be loved.
- Perf. amandus fui, I was to be loved.
- Plub. amandus fueram. I had deserved to be loved.
- Fut. P. amandus fuero, I shall have deserved to be loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

- Pres. amandus sim, I may deserve to be loved.
- Imp. amandus essem, I might deserve to be loved.
- Perf. amandus fuerim, I may have deserved to be loved.
- Plup. amandus fuissem, I might have deserved to be loved.

INFINITIVE.

- Pres. amandus esse, to deserve to be loved.
- Perf. amandus fuisse, to have deserved to be loved.

PECULIARITIES OF CONJUGATION.

116. 1. Perfects in -āvī, -ēvī and -īvī, with the forms derived from them, often drop the ve or vi before endings beginning with r or s. So also novī (from nosco) and the compounds of movī (rom moveo). Thus:—

amāvistī amāvisse	amāstī amāsse	dēlēvistī dēlēvisse	dēlēstī dēlēss e
amāvērunt	amārunt	dēlēvērunt	dēlērunt
amāverim	amārim	dēlēverim	dēlērim
amāveram	amāram	dēlēveram	dēlēram
amāverō	amārō	dēlēverō	dēlērō
nõvistī	nōstī	nōverim	nōrim
nōv i ss e	nōsse	nōveram	nõram
audīvistī	a udīsti	audīviss e	audīsse

- 2. In the Gerund and Gerundive of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, the endings -undus, -undi, often occur instead of -endus and -endi, as faciundus, faciundī.
- 3. Dīcō, dūcō, faciō, form the Imperatives, dīc, dūc, fac. But compounds of faciō form the Imperative in -fice, as cōnfice. Compounds of dīcō, dūcō accent the ultima; as, ēdúc, ēdíc.
 - 4. Archaic and Poetic forms:
 - a. The ending -ier in the Present Infinitive Passive; as, amarier, monerier, dicier, for amari, moneri, dici.
 - b. The ending -Ibam for -iBbam in Imperfects of the Fourth Conjugation, and -Ibō for -iam in Futures; as, scIbam, scIbō, for sciBbam, sciam.
 - c. Instead of the fuller forms, in such words as dīxistī, scrīpsistis, surrēxisse, we sometimes find dīxtī, scrīpstis, surrēxe.
 - d. The endings -im, -īs, etc. (for -am, -ās, etc.) occur in a few Subjunctive forms; as, edim (eat), duint, perduint.
- 5. In the Future Active and Perfect Passive Infinitive, the auxiliary esse is often omitted; as, acturum for acturum esse; ejectus for ejectus esse.

FORMATION OF THE VERB-STEMS.

Formation of the Present Stem.

- 117. Many verbs employ the Verb Stem for the Present Stem; as, dicere, dicere, amare, monere, audire. Others form the Present Stem variously, as follows:—
 - 1. By appending the vowels a, e, I; as, -

```
juvāre, Present Stem juvā- (Verb Stem juv-).
augēre, " augē- (" " aug-).
vincīre, " vincī- (" " vinc-).
```

- 2. By adding i, as capio, Present Stem capi- (Verb Stem cap-).
- 3. By the insertion of **n** (**m** before labial-mutes) before the final consonant of the Verb Stem; as, fundō (Stem fud-), rumpō (Stem rup-).
 - 4. By appending -n to the Verb Stem; as, -

cern-ō pell-ō (for pel-nō).

¹ Strictly speaking, the Present Stem always ends in a Thematic Vowel (8 or 8); as, dic-8-, dic-8-, ama-8-, ama-8-. But the multitude of phonetic changes involved prevents a scientific treatment of the subject here. See the Appendix.

- 5. By appending t to the Verb Stem; as,—
 flect-ō.
- By appending so to the Verb Stem; as, orēsc-ō scīsc-ō.
- 7. By Reduplication, that is, by prefixing the initial consonant of the Verb Stem with i; as,—

gi-gn-ō (root gen-).

si-st-ō (root sta-).

Formation of the Perfect Stem.

- 118. The Perfect Stem is formed from the Verb Stem —
- 1. By adding ▼ (in case of Vowel Stems); as,—

amāv-ī, dēlēv-ī,

audīv-ī.

- By adding u (in case of some Consonant Stems); as, strepu-I, genu-I, alu-I.
- 3. By adding s (in case of most Consonant Stems); as, —

carp-ō, Perfect carps-ī.

scrīb-ō, " scrīps-ī (for scrīb-sī).

rīd-eō, " rīs-ī (for rīd-sī).

sent-iō, " sēns-ī (for sent-sī).

dīc-ō, " dīx-ī (i.e. dīc-sī).

- a. Note that before the ending -sī a Dental Mute (t, d) is lost; a Guttural Mute (c, g) unites with s to form x; while the Labial b is changed to p.
- 4. Without addition. Of this formation there are three types:
 - a) The Verb Stem is reduplicated by prefixing the initial consonant with the following vowel or e; as,—

curră, Perfect cu-currī.

poscō, " po-poscī.

pello, " pe-pulī.

NOTE 1.—Compounds, with the exception of do, sto, disco, posco, omit the reduplication. Thus: com-puli, but re-poposci.

NOTE 2.—Verbs beginning with sp or st retain both consonants in the reduplication, but drop s from the stem; as, spondeo, spo-pondi; sto, steti.

- b) The short vowel of the Verb Stem is lengthened; as, lego, log; ago, egi. Note that a by this process becomes 6.
- c) The vowel of the Verb Stem is unchanged; as, vertō, vertī; minuō, minuī.

Formation of Participial Stem.

- 119. The Perfect Passive Participle, from which the Participial Stem is derived by dropping -us, is formed:—
- 1. By adding -tus (sometimes to the Present Stem, sometimes to the Verb Stem); as,—

```
amā-re, Participle amā-tus.
dēlē-re, " dēlē-tus.
audī-re, " audī-tus.
leg-ere, " lēc-tus.
scrīb-ere, " sorīp-tus.
sentī-re, " sēn-sus (for sent-tus).
caed-ere, " cae-sus (for caed-tus).
```

- a. Note that g, before t, becomes c (see § 8, 5); b becomes p; while dt or tt became ss, which was then often simplified to s (§ 8, 2).
- 2. After the analogy of Participles like sēnsus and caesus, where -sus arises by phonetic change, -sus for -tus is added to other Verb Stems; as, —

```
lāb-ī, Participle lāp-sus.
fīg-ere, " fī-xus.
```

- a. The same consonant changes occur in appending this ending -sus to the stem as in the case of the Perfect ending -si (see § 118, 3, a).
- 3. A few Verbs form the Participle in -Itus; as, -

domā-re, dom-ĭtus.
monē-re, mon-ĭtus.

4. The Future Active Participle is usually identical in its stem with the Perfect Passive Participle; as, amā-tus, amātūrus; monitus, monitūrus. But—

```
has Fut. Act. Partic. juvātūrus.1
juvā-re, Perf. Partic. jūtus,
lavā-re,
                     lautus,
                                                    lavātūrus.
                "
                                          "
par-ere,
                     partus.
                                                    paritūrus.
ru-ere,
          "
                     -rutus,
                                          "
                                                "
                                                    ruitūrus.
                                                    secātūrus.
secā-re.
                     sectus.
          "
                "
                                     "
                                          "
                                                "
fru-ī,
                     -früctus.
                                                    fruitūrus.
          "
                "
                     mortuus, "
                                          "
                                                "
mor-ī.
                                                    moritūrus.
                                                     oritūrus.
orī-rī.
                     ortus,
```

¹ But the compounds of juvo sometimes have -jūtūrus; as, adjūtūrus.

LIST OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS WITH PRINCIPAL PARTS.

First $(\bar{A}-)$ Conjugation.

120. I. PERFECT IN -VI.

amō	amāre	amāvī	amātus	love
P	All regular verbs o	of the First	Conjugation follow	this model.
pōtō	o pōtāre	pōtāvī	pōtus (§ 114,	2) drink

II. PERFECT IN -UI.

d firm	repō ubō omō ricō nicō dīmicō x-plicō m-plicō ecō onō	crepāre cubāre domāre fricāre micāre dīmicāre explicāre implicāre secāre	crepuī cubuī domuī fricuī micuī dīmicāvī explicāvī (-uī) implicāvī (-uī) secuī sonuī	crepitūrus cubitūrus domitūrus frictus and fricātus —— dīmicātum (est)¹ explicātus (-itus) implicātus (-itus) sectus sonātūrus	glitter fight unfold entwine cut sound
_	ono onō	sonare tonāre	sonui tonui	sonaturus	souna thunder
-	etō	vetāre	vetuī	vetitus	forbid

III. Perfect in -Ī with Lengthening of the Stem Vowel. juvō juvāre jūvī jūtus help

lautus

IV. DEPONENTS.

lavāre

lavō

These are all regular, and follow miror, mirāri, mirātus sum.

lāvī

Second (\bar{E}_{-}) Conjugation.

121. I. PERFECT IN -VI.

dēleō	dēlēre	dēlēvī	dēlētus	destroy
fleō	flēre	flēvī	flētus	weep, lament
com-pleō ²	complēre	complēvī	complētus	fill up
aboleō	abolēre	abolēvī	abolitus	destroy
cieō ⁸	ciēre	cīvī	citus	set in motion

¹ Used only impersonally.

wash

² So impleo, expleo.

⁸ Compounds follow the Fourth Conjugation: accio, accire, etc.

II. PERFECT IN -UI.

a. Type -eō, -ēre, -uī, -itus.

arceō	ar cēre	arcuī		keep off
coerceō	coercēre	coercuī	coercitus	hold in check
exerceō	exercēre	exercuī	exercitus	practise
caleō	calēre	caluī	calitūrus	be warm
careō	carër e	caruī	caritūrus	be without
doleō	dolēre	doluī	dolitūrus	grieve
habeō	habēr e	habuī	habitus	have
dēbeō	dēbēr e	dēbuī	dēbitus	owe
praebeō	praebēr e	praebuī	praebitus	offer
jaceō	jacēre	jacuī	jacitūrus	lie
mereō	merēre	meruī	meritus	earn, deserve
moneō	monēre	monuī	monitus	advise
noceō	nocēre	nocuī	nocitum (est)	injure
pāreō	pārēre	pāruī	pāritūrus	obey
placeō	placēre	placuī	placitūrus	please
taceō	tacēre	tacuī	tacitūrus	be sil ent
terreō	terrēre	terruī	territus	frighten
valeō	valēre	valuī	valitūrus	be strong

NOTE 1. — The following lack the Participial Stem: —

egeō	egēre	eguī	 want
ēmineō	ēminēre	ēminuī	 stand forth
flōreō	flörēre	flōruī	 bloom
horreō	horrēr e	horruī	 bristle
lateō	latēre	latuī	 lurk
niteō	nitēre	nitu ī	 gleam
oleō	olēre	oluī	 smell
palleō	pallēre	p a lluī	 be pale
pateō	patēre	patuī	 lie open
rubeō	rubēre	rubuī	 be red
sileō	silēre	siluī	 be silent
splendeō	splendēre	splenduī	 gleam
studeō	studēre	studuī	 study
stupeō	stupēre	stupuī	 be amazed
timeō	timēre	timuī	 fear
torpeō	torpēre	torpuī	 be dull
vigeō	vigēr e	viguī	 flourish
vireō	virēre	viruī	 be green
		and others.	

Note 2. — The following are used only in the Present System: —				
aveō	avēre			wish
frīgeō	frīgēre			be cold
immineō	imminēr e			overhang
maereō	maerēre			mourn
pol leō	pollēr e			be strong
	_	and others.		_
<i>b</i> . Т уре -е	ō, -ēre, -u ī, -t ī	15 (-s us).		
cēnseō	cēnsēre	cēnsuī	cēnsus	estima te
doceō	docēre	docuī	doctus	teach
misc e ő	miscēre	miscuī	mixtus	mix
teneō	tenēre	tenuī		hold
So contine	ō and sustineō;	but —		
retineō	retinēre	retinuī	retentus	retain
obtineō	obtinēre	obtinuī	obtentus	maintain
torreō	torrēre	torruī	tostus	bake
III. PERF	ect in -SĪ .			
augeō	augēre	auxī	auctus	increase
torqueō	torquēr e	torsī	tortus	twist
indulgeō	indulgēre	indulsī	•	indulge
lūceō	lūcēre	lūxī		be light
lūgeō	lūgēre	lūxī		mourn
jubeō	j ubēre	jussī	jus sus	order
per-mulceō	permulcēre	permulsī	permulsus	soothe
rīdeō	rīdēre	rīsī	rīsum (est)	laug h
suādeō	suādēre	suāsī	suāsum (est)	advise
abs-tergeō	abstergēre	abstersī	abstersus	wipe off
ārdeō	ārdēre	ārsī	ārsūrus	burn
haereō	haerēre	haesī	haesūrus	stick
maneō	manēre	mānsī	mānsūrus	stay
algeō	algēre	alsī		be cold
fulgeō	fulgēre -	fulsī		gleam
urgeō	urgēre	ursī .		press
IV. PERF	ECT IN -I WIT	H REDUPLICA	rion.	
mordeō	mordēre	momordī	morsus	bite
spondeō	spondēre	spopondī	spōnsus	promise
tondeō	tondēre	totondī	tōnsus	shear
pendeō	pendēr e	pependī		hang
•	•	r - F		-

V. PERFECT IN -I WITH LENGTHENING OF STEM VOWEL.

caveō	cavēre	cāvī	cautūrus	take care
faveō	favēre	fāvī	fautūrus	favor
foveō	fovēre	fōvī	fōtus	cherish
moveō	movēre	mõvĩ	mõtus	move
paveō	pavēre	pāvī		fear
sedeō	sedēre	sēdī	sessūrus	sit
videō	vidēre	vīdī	vīsus	see
voveō	vovēr e	vōvī	võtus	vow

VI. Perfect in -I without either Reduplication or Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

ferveō	fervēr e	fervī (ferbuī)		boil
prandeō	prandēre	prandī	prānsus (§ 114, 2)	lunch
strīdeō	strīdēre	strīdī		creak

VII. DEPONENTS.

liceor	licērī	licitus sum	bid
polliceor	pollicērī	pollicitus sum	promise
mereor	merērī	meritus sum	earn
misereor	miserērī	miseritus sum	pity
vereor	v e rē r ī	veritus sum	fear
fateor	fatērī	fassus sum	confess
cōnfiteor	cōnfitērī	cōnfessus sum	confess
reor	rērī	ratus sum	think
medeor	medērī		heal
tueor	tuērī		protect

Third (Consonant) Conjugation.

122. I. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN A CONSONANT.

- 1. Perfect in -sī.
- a. Type -ō, -ĕre, -sī, -tus.

carpō		carpere	carpsī	carptus	pluck
sculpō		sculpere	sculpsī	sculptus	chisel
rēpō		rēpere	rēpsī		creep
serpō		serpere	serpsī		crawl
scrībō		scrībere	scrīpsī	scrīptus	write
nūbō	•	nūber e	nūpsī	nūpta (woman only)	marry
regō		regere	rēxī	rēctus	govern

tegō af-flīgō	tegere afflīgere	tēxī afflīxī	tēctus afflīctus	cover shatter
dīcō	dīcere	dīxī	dictus	
				say
dūcō	dū c ere	dūxī	ductus	lead
coquō	coquere	coxī	coctus	cook
trahō	trahere	trāxī	trāctus	draw
vehō	vehere	vexī	vectus	carry ·
cingō	cingere	cīnxī	cīnctus	gird
tingō	tingere	tīnxī	tīnctus	dip
jungō	jungere	jūnxī	jūnctus	join
fingō	fingere	fīnxī	fīctus	mould
pingō	pingere	pīnxī	pīctus	paint
stringō	stringere	strīnxī	strīctus	bind
-stinguō ¹	-stinguere	-stīnxī	-stinctus	blot out
unguō	unguere	ūnxī	ūnctus	anoint
vīvō ·	vīvere	vīxī	vīctum (est)	live
gerō	gerere	gessī	gestus	carry
ūrō	ūrere	ussī	ūstus	burn
temnō	temnere	con-tempsī	con-temptus	despise

b. Type -ō, -ĕre, -sī, -sus.

fīgō	figere	fīxī	fīxus	fasten
	G			•
mergō	mergere	mersī	mersus	sink
sp arg ō	spargere	sparsī	sparsus	scatter
flectō	flectere	flexī	flexus	bend
nectō	nectere	nexuī (nexī)	nexus	twine
mittō	mittere	mīsī	missus	send
rādō	rādere	rāsī	rāsus	shave
rōdō	rōdere	rōsī	rōsus	gnaw
vādō	vādere	-vāsī 2	-vāsum (est)²	march, walk
lūdō	lūdere	lūsī	lūsum (est)	play
trūdō	trūdere	trūsī	trūsus	push
laedō	laedere	laesī	laesus	injure, hurt
claudō	claudere	clausī	clausus	close
plaudō	plaudere	plausī	plausum (est)	clap
explōdō	explodere	explōsī	explōsus	hoot off
cēdō	cēdere	cessī	cessum (est)	withdraw
dīvidō	dīvidere	dīvīsī	dīvīsus	divide
premō	premere	pressī	pressus	press
cēdō dīvidō	cēdere dīvidere	cessī dīvīsī	cessum (est) dīvīsus	withd raw divide

¹ Fully conjugated only in the compounds: exstinguō, restinguō, distinguō.
2 Only in the compounds: ēvādō, invādō, pervādō.

2. Perfect in -1 with Reduplication.

ab-dō	abdere	a bdidī	abditus	conceal			
red-dō	red-dere	reddidī	redditus	return			
So addō, condō, dēdō, perdō, prōdō, trādō, etc.							
cōn-sistō	cōnsistere	constiti		take one's stand			
resistō	resistere	restitī		resist			
circumsistō	circumsistere	circumstetī		surround			
cadō	cadere	cecidī	cāsūrus	fall			
caedō	caedere	cecīdī	caesus	kill			
pendō	pendere	pependī	pēnsus	weigh, pay			
tendō	tendere	tetendī	tentus	stretch			
tundō	tundere	tutudī	tūsus, tūnsus	beat			
fallō	fallere	fefellī	(falsus, as Adj.)	deceive			
pellō	pellere	pepulī	pulsus	drive out			
currō	currere	cucurrī	cursum (est)	run			
parcō	parcere	pepercī	parsūrus ·	spare			
canō	canere	cecinī		sing			
tangō	tanger e	tetigī	tāctus	touch			
pungō	pungere	pupugī	pūnctus	prick			

Note. — In the following verbs the perfects were originally reduplicated, but have lost the reduplicating syllable: — $\,$

per-cellö	percellere	perculī	perculsus	strike down
findō	findere	fidī	fissus	split
scindō	scindere	scidī	scissus	tear apart
tollō	toller e	sus-tulī	sublātus	remove

3. Perfect in -I with Lengthening of Stem-Vowel.

agō	agere	ēgī	āctus	drive, do
peragō	peragere	perēgī	perāctus	finish
subigō	subigere	subēgī	subāctus	subdue
cōgō	cōgere	c oēgī	coāctus	force, gather
frangō	frangere	frēgī	frāctus	break
perfringō	perfringere	perfrēgī	perfrāctus	break down
legō	legere	lēgī	lēctus	gather, read
perlegō	perlegere	perlēgī	perlēctus	read through
colligō	colligere	collēgī	collēctus	collect
dēligō	dēligere	dēlēgī	dēlēctus	choose
dīligō	dīliger e	dīlēxī	dīlēctus	love
intellegō	intellegere	intellēxī	intellēctus	understand
neglegõ	neglegere	neglēxi	neglēctus	neglect

emō	emere	ēmī	ēmptus	buy
coëmō	coëmere	coēmī	coemptus	buy up
r e dimō	redimere ·	redēmī	redēmptus	buy back
dirimō	dirimere	dirēmī	dirēmptus	destroy
d ēm ō	dēmere	dēmpsī	dēmptus	take away
sūmõ	sūmere	sūmpsī	sūmptus	take
prōmō	promere	prōmpsī	(promptus, as Adj.)	take out
vincō	vincere	vīcī	victus	conquer
re-linquō	relinquere	relīquī	relīctus	leave
rumpō	rumpere	rūpī	ruptus	break
edō	edere	ēdī	ēsus	eat
fundō	fundere	fūdī	fūsus	pour

4. Perfect in -1 without either Reduplication or Lengthening of Stem-Vowel.

excūdō	excūdere	excūdī	excūsus	hammer
cōnsīdō	cōnsīdere	cōnsēdī		{ take one's seat
possīdō	possīdere	possēdī	possessus	{ take posses-
accendō	accendere	accendī	accēnsus	kindle
æ-scendō	ascendere	ascendī	ascēnsum (est)	climb
dē-fendō	dēfend ere	dēfendī	dēfēnsus	defend
pre-hendō	prehendere	prehendī	pr e hēnsus	seize
īcō	īcer e	īcī	ictus	strike
vellō	vellere	vellī	vulsus	pluck
vertō	verter e	vertī	versus	turn
pandō	pandere	pandī	passus	spread
solvō	solver e	solvī	solūtus	loose
vīsō	vīser e	vīsī	vīsus	visit
volvō	v olve re	volvī	volūtus	roll
verrō	verrere	verrī	versus	sweep

5. Perfect in -uī.

J 00				
in-cumbō	incumbere	incubuī	incubitūrus	lean on
gignō	gīgnere	genuī	genitus	bring forth
molō	molere	moluī	molitus	grind
vomō	vomere	vomuī	vomitus	vomit
fremō	fremere	fremuī		snort
gemō	gemere	gemuī		sigh
metō	metere	messuī	messus	reap

4 w a m a 5	tromoro	aremuī		tremble
tremõ	tremere			rattle
strepō alō	strepere alere	strepuī aluī	altur (alitura)	nourish
colō	colere	coluī	altus (alitus) cultus	cultivate
incolō	incolere	incoluī	Cuitus	inhabit
excolō	excolere	excoluī	excultus	perfect
consulo	cōnsuler e	cōnsuluī	cōnsultus	consult
cōnserō	conserere	cōnseruī	consertus	join
dēserō	dēserere	dēseruī	dēsertus	desert
disserō	disserere	disseruī		discours e
texō	texere	texuī	textus	weave
6. Perfect	in - vī .			
sinō	sinere	sīvī	situs	allow
dēsinō	dēsinere	dēsiī	dēsitus	cease
pōnō	pōnere	posuī	positus	place
ob-linō	oblinere	oblēvī	oblitus	smear
serō	serere	sēvī	satus	sow
cōnserō	cōnserere	cōnsēvī	cōnsitus	plant
cernō	cernere			separate
discernō	discernere	discrēvī	discrētus	distinguish
dēcernō	dēcernere	dēcrēvī	dēcrētus	decide •
spernō	spernere	sprēvī	sprētus	scorn
sternō	sternere	strāvī	strātus	spread
prō-sternō	prösternere	prōstrāvī	prōstrātus	overthrow
petō	petere	petīvī (petiī)	petītus	seek
appetō	appetere	appetīvī	appetītus	long for
terō	terere	trīvī	trītus	rub
quaerō	quaerere	quaesīvī	quaesītus	seek
acquīrō	acquirere	acquisivi	acquisitus	acquire
arcessõ	arcessere	arcessīvī	arcessītus	summon
capessõ	capessere	capessīvī	capessītus	seize
lacessõ	lacessere	lacessīvī	lacessītus	provoke
lacesso	lacessere	lacessivi	lacessitus	provoke
7. Used o	nly in Present	System.		
angō	angere			choke
lambō	lambere			lick
claudō	claudere			be lame
furō	furere			rave
vergō	vergere			bend
•	0	1 6 .43		

and a few others.

II. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN -U.

induō	induere	induī	indūtus	put on
imbuō	imbuere	imbuī	imbūtus	moisten
luō	luere	luī		wash
polluō	polluere	polluī	pollūtus	defile
minuō	minuere	minuī	minūtus	lessen
statuō	statuere	statuī	statūtus	set up
cōnstituō	c ōnstituere	constitui	cōnstitūtus	determine
suō	suere	suī	sūtus	sew
tribuō	tribuere	tribuī	tribūtus	allot
ruō	ruere	ruī	ruitūrus	fall
dīruō	dīruere	dīruī	dīrutus	destroy
obruō	obruere	obruī	obrutus	overwhelm
acuō	acuere	acuī		sharpen
arguö	arguere	arguī		accuse
congruō	congruere	congruī		agree
metuō	metuere	metuī		fear
ab-nuō	abnuere	abnuī		decline
re-spuō	respuere	respuī		reject
struō	struere	strūxī	strūctus .	build
fluō	fluere	fluxī	(fluxus, as Adj.)	flow

III. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN -I.

cupiō	cupere	cupīvī	cupītus	wish
sapiō	sapere	sapīvī		taste
rapiō	rapere	ra puī	raptus	snatch
dīripiō	dīripere	dīripuī	dīreptus	plunder
cōnspiciō	cōnspicere	cōnspexī	conspectus	gaze at
aspiciō	aspicere	aspexī	aspectus	behold
illiciō	illicere	illexī	illectus	allure
pelliciō	pellicere	pellexī	pellectus	allure
ēliciō	ēlicere	ēlicuī	ēlicitus	elicit
quatiō	quatere		quassus	shake
concutiō	concutere	concussī	concussus	shake
pariō	parere	peperī	partus	bring forth
capiō	capere	c ēpī	captus	take
accipiō	accipere	accēpī	acceptus	accept
incipiō	incipere	incēpī	inceptus	begin
faciō	facere	fēcī	factus	make
afficiō	afficere	affēcī	affectus	affect

Passive, afficior, afficī, affectus sum.

So other prepositional compounds, perficio, perficior; interficio, interficior; etc. But —

assuēfaciō assuēfacere assuēfēcī assuēfactus accustom

Passive assuēfīo, assuēfierī, assuēfactus sum.

So also patefacio, patefio; calefacio, calefio; and all non-prepositional compounds.

jaciō	jacere	jēcī	jactus	hurl
abiciō	abicere	a bjēcī	abjectus	throw away
fodiō	fodere	fōdī	fossus	dig
fugiō	fugere	fūgī	fugitūrus	flee
effugiō	effuger e	effügī		escape

IV. VERBS IN -BCO.

1. Verbs in -scō from Simple Roots.

poscō	poscere	poposcī		demand
discō	discere	didicī		learn
pāscō	pāscere	pāvī	pāstus	feed
pāscor	pāsci	pāstus sur	n	graze
crēs c ō	crēscere	crēvī	crētus	grow
consuesco.	consuescere	cōnsuēvī	consuetus	accustom one's self
quiēs c ō	quiēscere	quiēvī	quiētūrus	be still
adolēscō	adolēscere	adolēvī		grow up
obsolēscō	obsolēscere	obsolēvī		grow old.
nōscō	nõscere	nōvī		{ become acquainted with
ignōsc ō	ignöscere	ignõvī	ignōtūr us	pardon
agnōscō	agnōscere	agnōvī	agnitus	recognize
cognōscō	cognōscere	cognōvī	cognitus	{ get acquainted with

2. Verbs in -sco formed from other Verbs.

These usually have Inchoative or Inceptive meaning (see § 155. 1). When they have the Perfect, it is the same as that of the Verbs from which they are derived.

flörēscō	flör ëscere	flōruī	begin to bloom	(flōreō)
sc īscō	scīscere	scīvī	enact	(sciō)
ārēscō	ārēscere	āruī	become dry	(āreō)
calēs c ō	calēscer e	caluī	become hot	(caleō)
cõnsenēscõ	consenescere	cōnsenuī	grow old	(seneō)
extimēscō	extimēscere	extimuī	fear greatly	(timeō)
ingemīscō	ingemīscere	ingemuī	sigh	(gemō)
adhaerēscō	adhaerēscere	adhaesī	stick	(haereō)

3. Verbs in -sco derived from Nouns, usually with Inchoative meaning.

obdű rēsc ő	obdūrē scere	obdūr uī	grow hard	(dūrus)
ēvānēscō	ēvānēscere	ēvānuī	disappear	(vānus)
percrēbrēscō	percrēbrēscere	percrēbruī	grow fresh	(crēber)
mātūrēscō	mātūrēscere	mātūruī	grow ripe	(mātūrus)
obmūtēscō	obmūtē scere	obmūtuī	grow dumb	(mūtus)

V. DEPONENTS.

fungor	fungī	functus sum	perform
queror	querī	questus sum	complain
loquor	loquī	locūtus sum	speak
sequor	sequī	secūtus sum	follow
fruor	fruī	fruitūr us	enjoy
perfruor	perfruī	perfrūctus sum	thoroughly enjoy
lābor	lābī	lāpsus sum	glide
amplector	amplectī	amplexus sum	embrace
nītor	nītī	nīsus sum, nīxus sum	strive
gradior	gradī	gressus sum	walk
patior	patī	passus sum	suffer
perpetior	perp e tī	perpessus sum	endure
ūtor	ūtī	ūsus sum	use
morior	morī	mortuus sum	die
adipīscor	adipīscī	adeptus sum	acquire
comminiscor	comminīscī	commentus sum	invent
reminīscor	reminīscī		remember
nancīscor	nancīscī	nanctus (nactus) sum	acquire
nāscor	nāscī	nātus sum	be born
oblīvīscor	oblīvīscī	oblītus sum	forget
pacīscor	pacīscī	pactus sum	covenant
proficiscor	proficīscī	profectus sum	set out
ulcīscor	ulcīs c ī	ultus sum	avenge
īrāscor	īrāscī	(īrātus, as Adj.)	be angry
vescor	vescī		eat

Fourth Conjugation.

123. I. PERFECT ENDS IN -VĪ.

audiō	audīre	audīvī a	ıdītus	hear
So all re	egular Verbs of	the Fourth Con	jugation.	
sepeliõ	sepelīre	sepelīvī s	epultus	bury

II. Perfe	CT ENDS IN -U	rī.		
aperiō	aperīre	aperuī	apertus	open
operiō	operīre	operuī	opertus	cover
saliō	salīre	saluī		leap
III. Perf	ECT ENDS IN -	aŦ		•
		51 .		
saepiō	saepīr e	saepsī	saeptus	hedge in
sanciō	sancīre	sānxī	sānctus	ratify
vinciō	vincīre	vinxī	vinctus	bind
amiciō	amicīre		amictus	envelo pe
ful c iō	fulcīre	fulsī	fultus	prop up
referciō	refercīr e	refersī	refertus	fill
sarciō	sarcīre	sarsī	sartus	patch
hauriō	haurīre	hausī	haustus	draw
sentiō	sentīre	sēnsī	sēnsus	feel
IV. PERF	ECT IN -I WITH	H LENGTHEN	ING OF STEM VOV	ÆL.
veniō	venīre	vēnī	ventum (est)	come
adveniō	advenīre	advēnī	adventum (est)	arrive
inveniō	invenīr e	invēnī	inventus	find
V. Perfe	ст with Loss	of Redupl	ICATION.	
reperiō	reperīre	repp e rī	repertus	find
comperiõ	comperīre	comperī	compertus	learn
VI. USED	ONLY IN THE	PRESENT.	-	
feriō	ferīre			strike
ēsuriō	ēsurīre			be hungry
VII. DEP	ONENTS.			0,
largior	largīrī	largītus sum		bestow
So many o	U	· ·		
experior	experîrî	expertus sur	n	try
opperior	opperīrī	oppertus sur	n	await
ōrdior	ōrdīrī	ōrsus sum		begin
orior	orīrī	ortus sum		arise
Orior also	admits forms of	the Third C	onjugation; as, ore	ris, oritur,
	er (Imp. Subj.)			, ,
mētior	mētīrī	mēnsus sum		measure
ssentior	assentīrī	assēnsus sur	n	assent

IRREGULAR VERBS.

- 124. A number of Verbs are called Irregular. The most important are sum, dō, edō, ferō, volō, nōlō, mālō, eō, ffō. The peculiarity of these Verbs is that they append the personal endings in many forms directly to the stem, instead of employing a connecting vowel, as fer-s (2d Sing. of fer-ō) instead of fer-is. They are but the relics of what was once in Latin a large class of Verbs.
- 125. The Inflection of sum has already been given. Its various compounds are inflected in the same way. They are—

absum	abesse	āfuī	am absent
	Pres. Partic. abs	ēns (absentis), a	ibsent.
adsum	adesse	adfuī	am present
dēsum .	deesse	dēfuī	am lacking
īnsum	inesse	īnfuī	am in
intersum	interesse	interfuī	am among
praesum	praeesse	praefuī	am in charge of
-	Pres. Partic. praes	ēns (praesentis)	
obsum	obesse	obfuī	hinder
prōsum	prõdesse	prōfu ī	am of advantage
subsum	subess e	subfuī	am at the basis of
supersum	superesse	superfuī	am left

Note.—Prōsum is compounded of prōd (earlier form of prō) and sum; the d disappears before consonants, as prōsumus, but prōdestis.

126. Possum. In its Present System possum is a compound of pot- (for pote, able) and sum; potuī is from an obsolete potēre.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

possum, posse, potuī, to be able.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. possumus, potestis, possunt. Pres. possum, potes, potest; Imp. poterāmus. poteram; Fut. poterimus. poterō; Perf. potuī; potuimus. Plup. potueram; potuerāmus. Fut. P. potuero; potuerimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. possim, possīs, possit; possīmus, possītis, possint.

Imp.possem;possēmus.Perf.potuerim;potuerimus.Plup.potuissem;potuissēmus.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. posse. Pres. potens (as an adjective).

Perf. potuisse.

127. Dō, I give.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

dō, dăre, dedī, dătus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. dō, dās, dat; dămus, dǎtis, dant. Imp. dǎbam, etc.; dǎbāmus.

Fut. dăbō, etc.; dăbimus.

Perf. dedī; dedimus.

Plup. dederam; dederāmus.

Fut. P. dederō; dederimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

dedissēmus.

Pres.dem;dēmus.Imp.dărem;dărēmus.Perf.dederim;dederimus.

.....

dedissem;

Pres. dā; dăte.
Fut. dătō; dătōte.

dătō; dantō.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. dăre. dāns.

Perf. dedisse.

Plup.

Fut. dătūrus esse. dătūrus.

GERUND. SUPINE. dandī, etc. datum, datū.

- 1. The Passive is inflected regularly with the short vowel. dărī, dătur, dăbātur, dărētur, etc.
- 2. The archaic and poetic forms duim, duint, interduo, perduint, etc., are not from the root da-, but from du-, a collateral root of similar meaning.
- **128**. **Edō**, *I eat*. This verb, in addition to its regular inflection, sometimes has duplicate forms in certain tenses of the Present System.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

edō,

edere.

ēdī.

ēsus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. edō

edimus

edis, ēs

editis, ēstis

edit, ēst

edunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. ederem, ēssem

ederēmus, ēssēmus

ederēs, ēssēs

ederētis, ēssētis

ederet, ēsset

ederent, essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ede, ēs

edite, ēste

Fut. editō, ēstō editō, ēstō editöte, ēstōte

eduntō

INFINITIVE.

Pres.

edere, ēsse

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. 3d Sing. editur, ēstur

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. 3d Sing. ederētur, ēssētur

- 1. Observe the long vowel of the abbreviated forms, which alone distinguishes them from the corresponding forms of esse, to be.
- 2. Note comedo, comedere, comedo, comesus or comestus, consume.

Inflections.

129.

Fero, I bear.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

ferō, ferre.

tulI.

lātus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. ferō, fers, fert; ferimus, fertis, ferunt.1

 Imp.
 ferēbam;
 ferēbāmus.

 Fut.
 feram;
 ferēmus.

 Perf.
 tulī;
 tulimus.

Plup. tuleram; tulerāmus. Fut. P. tulerō; tulerimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

 Pres.
 feram;
 ferāmus.

 Imp.
 ferrem;
 ferrēmus.

 Perf.
 tulerim;
 tulerimus.

 Plup.
 tulissēmus.
 tulissēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

 Pres.
 fer ;
 ferte.

 Fut.
 fertō ;
 fertōte.

 fertō ;
 feruntō.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ferre. Pres. ferens.

Perf. tulisse.

Fut. lātūrus esse. Fut. lātūrus.

GERUND. SUPINE.

Gen. ferendī.

Dat. ferendō.

Acc. ferendum. Acc. lātum.
Abl. ferendō. Abl. lātū.

¹ It will be observed that not all the forms of **fero** lack the connecting vowel. Some of them, as **ferimus**, **ferunt**, follow the regular inflection of verbs of the *Third Conjugation*.

Passive Voice.

feror, ferrī, lātus sum, to be borne.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. feror, ferris, fertur; ferimur, feriminī, feruntur.

Imp. ferēbar; ferēbāmur. Fut. ferēmur. ferar: Perf. lātus sum; lātī sumus. Plup. lātus eram; lātī erāmus.

Fut. P. lātus erō; lātī erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. ferar: ferāmur. Imp. ferrer; ferrēmur. lātus sim; lātī sīmus. Perf. Plup. lātus essem; lātī essēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. feriminī. ferre; Fut. fertor:

feruntor. fertor:

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ferrī.

Perf. lātus esse. Perf. lātus. Fut. Ger. ferendus. lātum īrī.

So also the Compounds -

afferō	afferre	attulī	allātus	bring tow ar d
auferō	auferre	abstulī	ablātus	take away
cōnferō	cōnferr e	contulī	collātus	compare
differō	differre	distulī	dīlātus	put off
efferō	efferre	extulī	ēlātus	carry off
īnferō	īnferre	intulī	illātus	bring against
offerō	offerre	obtulī	oblātus	present
referō	referre	rettulī	relātus	bring back

Note. — The forms sustuli and sublatus belong to tollo.

130.

Volō, nölō, mālō.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

v olō,	velle,	voluī,	to be willing.
nōlō,	nõlle,	nõluī,	to be unwilling.
mālō,	mālle,	māluī,	to prefer.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres.	volō,	nōlō,	mālō,
	vīs,	non vīs,	māvīs,
	vult ;	nön vult;	māvult;
	volumus,	nōlumus,	mālumu s,
	vultis,	nōn vultis,	māvultis,
	volunt.	nōlunt.	mālunt.
Imp.	volēbam.	nölēbam.	mālēb am
Fut.	volam.	nōlam.	mālam.
Perf.	voluī.	nōluī.	māluī.
Plup.	volueram.	nōlueram.	mālueram
Fut. P	. voluerō.	nõluerõ.	māluerō.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.	velim, -īs, -it, etc.	nōlim.	mālim.
Imp.	vellem, -ēs, -et, etc.	nöllem.	māllem.
Perf.	voluerim.	nōluerim.	māluerim.
Plub.	voluissem.	nōluissem.	māluissem.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. nölī, nölīte.
Fut. nölītō, nölītōte,
nölītō; nöluntō.

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	velle.	nölle.	mālle.
Perf.	voluisse.	nõluisse.	māluiss e .

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. volēns. nolēns.

131.

Fīō.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

fīō. fierī, factus sum,

to become, be made.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. fio, fis, fit; fimus, fītis, fīunt.

Imp.fīēbam;fīēbāmus.Fut.fīam;fīēmus.Perf.factus sum;factī sumus.Plup.factus eram;factī erāmus.

Fut. P. factus erō; factī erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.fiam;fiāmus.Imp.fierem;fierēmus.Perf.factus sim;factī sīmus.

Plup. factus essem; factī essēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. lī; fīte.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. fierī.

Perf. factus esse. Perf. factus.

Fut. factum īrī. Ger. faciendus.

Note. — A few isolated forms of compounds of fio occur; as, dofit, lacks; Infit, begins.

132.

Eð.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

•5, Ire, IvI, itum (est), to go.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. eō, īs, it; īmus, ītis, eunt. Imp. ībam; ībāmus.

Imp. ībam; ībāmus. Fut. ībō; ībimus.

Perf. īvī (iī); īvimus (iimus).
Plup. īveram (ieram); īverāmus (ierāmus).

Fut. P. īverō (ierō); īverimus (ierimus).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. eam; eāmus. Imb. īrem: īrēmus.

Perf. iverim (ierim); iverimus (ierimus).

Plup. īvissem (iissem, īssem); īvissēmus (iissēmus, īssēmus).

IMPERATIVE.

 Pres.
 1;
 îte.

 Fut.
 ītō;
 ītōte,

 itō;
 euntō.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. īre. Pres. iēns.

Perf. īvisse (īsse) (Gen. euntis.)

Fut. itūrus esse. Fut. itūrus.

GERUND. SUPINE.

eundī, etc. itum, itū.

1. Transitive compounds of e5 admit the full Passive inflection; as, adeor, adīris, adītur, etc.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective Verbs lack certain forms. The following are the most important:—

133. Used mainly in the Perfect System.

Coepī, I have begun. Meminī, I remember. Ödī, I hate.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Perf.coepī.meminī.ōdī.Plup.coeperam.memineram.ōderam.Fut. P. coeperō.meminerō.ōderō.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perf.coeperim.meminerim.öderim.Plup.coepissem.meminissem.ödissem.

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. mementō; Plur. mementōte.

INFINITIVE.

Perf.coepisse.meminisse.ödisse.Fut.coeptūrus esse.ösūrus esse.

PARTICIPLE.

Perf. coeptus, begun. 5sus.
Fut. coeptūrus. 5sūrus.

- 1. When coepī governs a Passive Infinitive it usually takes the form coeptus est; as, amārī coeptus est, he began to be loved.
- 2. Note that memini and ōdi, though Perfect in form, are Present in sense. Similarly the Pluperfect and Future Perfect have the force of the Imperfect and Future; as, memineram, I remembered; ōderō, I shall hate.
 - 134. Inquam, I say (inserted between words of a direct quotation).

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. inquam, _____
inquis, ____
inquit; inquiunt.

Fut. ____
inquiēs, ____
inquiet.

Perf. 3d Sing. inquit.

135.

Ājō, I say.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

 SINGULAR.
 PLURAL.

 Pres.
 ājō,

 ais,
 —

 ait;
 ājunt.

 Imp.
 ājēbām,
 ājēbāmus,

 ājēbātis,
 ājēbātis,

 ājēbat;
 ājēbant.

Perf. 3d Sing. ait.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. 3d Sing. ājat.

NOTE. - For aisne, do you mean? ain is common.

136.

Fārī, to speak.

This is inflected regularly in the perfect tenses. In the Present System it has—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

:	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Pres.		
	fātur.	
Fut.	fābor,	
	fābitur.	
Imp.	fāre.	
Inf.	fārī.	
Pres. Partic.	fantis, fantī,	etc.
Gerund, G.,	fandī; D. a	<i>nd Abl.</i> , fandō.
Gerundive	fandus.	

NOTE. — Forms of fari are rare. More frequent are its compounds; as,—
affatur, he addresses; pracfamur, we say in advance.

137. OTHER DEFECTIVE FORMS.

- I. Queō, quīre, quīvī, to be able, and nequeō, nequīre, nequīvī, to be unable, are inflected like eō, but occur chiefly in the Present Tense, and there only in special forms.
 - 2. Quaeso, I entreat; quaesumus, we entreat.
 - 3. Cedo, cette; give me, tell me.
 - 4. Salvē, salvēte, hail. Also Infinitive, salvēre.
 - 5. Havē (avē), havēte, hail. Also Infinitive, havēre.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

- 138. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English, it snows, it seems, etc. They have no personal subject, but may take an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Neuter Pronoun; as, mē pudet hōc fēcisse, lit. it shames me to have done this; hōc decet, this is fitting. Here belong—
 - I. Verbs denoting operations of the weather; as,—

fulget fulsit it lightens tonat tonuit it lindtens

grandinat		it hails
ningit	ninxit	it snows
pluit	pluit	it rains

II. Special Verbs.

paenitet	paenitēre	paenituit	it repents
piget	pigēre	piguit	it grieves
pudet	pudēre	puduit	it causes shame
taedet	taedēre	taeduit	it disgusts
miseret	miserēre	miseruit	it causes pity
libet	libēr e	libuit	it pleases
licet	licēre	licuit	it is lawful
oportet	oportēre	oportuit	it is fitting
decet	decēre	decuit	it is becoming
dēdecet	dēdecēre	dēdecuit	it is unbecoming
rēfert	rēferre	rētulit	it concerns

III. Verbs Impersonal only in Special Senses.

cōnstat	constare	cōnstitit	it is evident
praestat	praestāre	praestitit	it is better
juvat	juvāre	jūvit	it delights
appāret	appārēre	appāruit	it appears
placet	placēre	placuit (placitum est)	it pleases
accēdit	accēdere	accessit	it is added
accidit	accidere	accidit	it happens
contingit	contingere	contigit	it happens
ēvenit	ēvenīre	ēvēnit	it turns out
interest	interesse	interfuit	it concerns

IV. The Passive of Intransitive Verbs; as, -

ītur	lit. <i>it is gone</i>	i.e. some one goes
curritur	lit. it is run	i.e. some one runs
ventum est	lit. it has been come	i.e. some one has com?
veniendum est	lit. it must be come	i.e. somebody must come
pūgnārī potest	lit. it can be fought	i.e. somebody can fight

PART III.

PARTICLES.

139. Particles are the four Parts of Speech that do not admit of inflection; viz. Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections.

ADVERBS.

140. Most adverbs are in origin case-forms which have become stereotyped by usage. The common adverbial terminations have already been given above (§ 76). The following TABLE OF CORRELATIVES is important:—

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	Indefinite.
ubi, where; where?	hīc, here. ibi, illīc, istīc, there.	alicubī, tīsquam, tīs- piam, somewhere.
quo, whither; whither?	hūc, hither. eō, istūc, illūc, thither.	aliquo, to some place.
unde, whence; whence?	hino, hence. inde, istino, illino, thence.	alicunde, from some- where.
quā, where; where?	hāc, by this way. eā, istāc, illāc, by that way.	aliquā, by some way.
cum, when. quando, when?	nunc, now. tum, tunc, then.	aliquando, umquam, sometime.
quotiens, as often as; how often?	totiēns, so often.	aliquotiens, some number of times.
quam, as much as; how much?	tam, so much.	

PREPOSITIONS.

141. The following Prepositions govern the Accusative:—

ad	ergā	praeter
adversus (adversum)	extrã	prope
ante	I nfr ā	propter
apud	inter	secundum
circā	intrā	subter
circiter	jū xtā	super
circum	ob	suprā
cis	penes	trāns
citrā	per	ultrā
contrā	pōne	versus
	post	

- Usque is often prefixed to ad, in the sense of even; as, usque ad urbem, even to the city.
- 2. Versus always follows its case; as, —

Romam versus, toward Rome.

It may be combined with a preceding Preposition; as,—ad urbem versus, toward the city.

- 3. Like prope, the Comparatives propior, propius, and the Superlatives proximus, proxime, sometimes govern the Accusative; as,—
 Ubii proxime Rhenum incolunt, the Ubii dwell next to the Rhine;
 propius castra hostium, nearer the camp of the enemy.
 - 142. The following Prepositions govern the Ablative:—

ā, ab, abs	₫ē	sine
absque	ē, ex	tenus
cōram	prae	
crim	prō	

- 1. \bar{A} , ab, abs. Before vowels or h, ab must be used; before consonants we find sometimes \bar{a} , sometimes ab (the latter not before the labials b, p, f, v, m; nor before c, g, q, or t); abs occurs only before t5, and \bar{a} is admissible even there.
- 2. **Ē**, ex. Before vowels or **h**, ex must be used; before coisonants, we find sometimes **ē**, sometimes **ex**.

- 3. Tenus regularly follows its case, as pectoribus tenus, up to the breast. It sometimes governs the Genitive, as labrorum tenus, as far as the lips.
- 4. Cum is appended to the Pronoun of the First and Second Persons, and to the Reflexive Pronoun; usually also to the Relative and Interrogative. Thus:—

mēcum sēcum

tēcum quōcum or cum quō
nōbīscum quācum or cum quā
vōbīscum quibuscum or cum quibus

On quicum, see § 89, Footnote 1.

143. Two Prepositions, in and sub, govern both the Accusative and the Ablative. With the Accusative they denote motion; with the Ablative, rest; as,—

in urbem, into the city; in urbe, in the city.

- 1. Subter and super are also occasionally construed with the Ablative.
 - 144. RELATION OF ADVERBS AND PREPOSITIONS.
- 1. Prepositions were originally Adverbs, and many of them still retain their adverbial meaning; as, post, afterwards; ante, previously; contrā, on the other hand, etc.
- 2. Conversely several words, usually adverbs, are occasionally employed as prepositions; as,—

clam, prīdiē, with the Accusative.
procul, simul, palam, with the Ablative.

3. Anastrophe. A dissyllabic preposition sometimes follows a relative pronoun which it governs; as,—

ii, quos inter erat, those among whom he was.

INTERJECTIONS.

- 145. Interjections are Particles expressing emotion. They may express
 - 1. Surprise; as, ēn, ecce, ō.
 - 2. Joy; as, io, euoe.
 - 3. Sorrow and Pain; as, heu, eheu, vae, pro.
 - 4. Calling; as, heus, eho.

PART IV.

WORD-FORMATION.

I. DERIVATIVES.

146. Derivatives are formed by appending certain terminations called Suffixes to stems of verbs, nouns, or adjectives.

A. NOUNS.

- 1. Nouns derived from Verbs.
- 147. I. The suffix -tor (-sor), Fem. -trīx, denotes the agent; as,—victor, victor; dēfēnsor, defender.

NOTE. — The suffix -tor is occasionally appended to noun stems; as,—gladiator, gladiator (from gladius).

2. The suffix -or (originally -5s) denotes an activity or a condition; as, —

amor, love; timor, fear; dolor, pain.

- 3. The suffixes -tiō (-siō), Gen. -ōnis, and -tus (-sus), Gen. -ūs, denote an action as in process; as,—
- vēnātiō, hunting; obsessiō, blockade; gemitus, sighing; cursus, running.

NOTE. - Rarer endings with the same force are: -

- a) -tūra, -sūra; as, —
 sepultūra, burial; mēnsūra, measuring.
- b) -ium; as,—
 gaudium, rejoicing.
- c) -idō, as, cupidō, desire.

4. The suffixes -men, -mentum, -crum, -trum, -bulum, -culum, denote the means or place of an action; as,—

```
lümen (lüc-s-men), light;vocābulum, word;örnāmentum, ornament;documentum, proof;sepulcrum, grave.arātrum, plough;
```

vehiculum, carriage.

When the root ends in c, the c of the suffix disappears; as,—
jaculum for jac-culum (from jacio).

2. Nouns derived from Nouns.

148. 1. Diminutives end in —

```
-ulus, (-ula, -ulum)
-olus, (-ola, -olum), after a vowel
-culus, (-cula, -oulum)
-ellus, (-ella, -ellum)
-illus, (-illa, -illum)
```

as, ---

```
nīdulus.
                 little nest
                                (nīdus);
virgula.
                 wand
                                (virga);
oppidulum,
                 little town
                                (oppidum);
filiolus,
                 little son
                                (filius);
opusculum,
                 little work
                                (opus);
tabella.
                 tablet
                                (tabula);
lapillus,
                 pebble
                                (lapis).
```

NOTE 1.—It will be observed that in gender the Diminutives follow the gender of the words from which they are derived.

NOTE 2.—The endings -ellus, -lllus contain the primitive form of the diminutive suffix, vis., -lo-. Thus:—

```
agellus, field, for ager-lus; lapillus, pebble, for lapid-lus.
```

2. The suffix -ium appended to nouns denoting persons designates either a collection of such persons or their function; as,—

```
collegium, a corporation, body of colleagues (collega); sacerdōtium, priestly function (sacerdōs).
```

3. The suffixes -arium, -atum, -ale designate a place where objects are kept or are found in abundance; as,—

```
columbārium, dove-cote (columba);
olīvētum, olive-orchard (olīva);
ovīle, sheep-fold (ovis).
```

- 4. The suffix -atus denotes official position or honor; as, consulatus, consulship (consul).
- 5. The suffix -Ina appended to nouns denoting persons designates a vocation or the place where it is carried on; as,—

doctrīna, teaching (doctor, teacher); medicīna, the art of healing (medicus, physician); sūtrīna, cobbler's shop (sūtor, cobbler).

- 6. Patronymics are Greek proper names denoting son of . . . daughter of . . . They have the following suffixes:
 - a) Masculines: -idēs, -adēs, -īdēs; as, Priamidēs, son of Priam; Aeneadēs, son of Aeneas; Pēlīdēs, son of Peleus.
 - b) Feminines: -ēis, -is, -ias; as, Nērēis, daughter of Nereus; Atlantis, daughter of Atlas; Thaumantias, daughter of Thaumas.

3. Nouns derived from Adjectives.

149. The suffixes -tās (-itās), -tūdō (-itūdō), -ia, -itia are used for the formation of abstract nouns denoting qualities; as,—

bonitās, goodness; celeritās, swiftness; māgnitūdō, greatness; audācia, boldness; amīcitia, friendship.

B. ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives derived from Verbs.

150. 1. The suffixes -bundus and -cundus give nearly the force of a present participle; as,—

tremebundus, trembling;

īrācundus, wrathful.

2. The suffixes -ax and -ulus denote an inclination or tendency, mostly a faulty one; as,—

loquāx, loquacious;

crēdulus, credulous.

- The suffix -idus denotes a state; as,—
 calidus, hot; timidus, timid; cupidus, eager.
- 4. The suffixes -ilis and -bilis denote capacity or ability, usually in a passive sense; as, —

fragilis, fragile (i.e. capable of being broken); docilis, docile.

2. Adjectives derived from Nouns.

- a) From Common Nouns.
- 151. I. The suffixes -eus and -inus are appended to names of substances or materials: as. -

aureus, of gold; ferreus, of iron; fāginus, of beech.

2. .The suffixes -ius, -icus, -Ilis, -ālis, -āris, -ārius, -nus, -ānus, -Inus, -Ivus, -Ensis signify belonging to, connected with; as, -

ōrātōrius, oratorical; bellicus, pertaining to war; cīvīlis, civil; rēgālis, regal;

legionārius, legionary; paternus, paternal; urbānus, of the city; marinus, marine;

consularis, consular;

aestīvus, pertaining to summer;

circensis, belonging to the circus.

3. The suffixes -osus and -lentus denote fullness; as, perfoulosus, full of danger, dangerous;

gloriosus, glorious; opulentus, wealthy.

4. The suffix -tus has the force of provided with; as, barbātus, bearded; stellätus, set with stars.

b) From Proper Names.

152. 1. Names of persons take the suffixes: -anus, -ianus, -Inus; as, --

Catonianus, belonging to Cato; Plautinus, belonging to Plautus.

- 2. Names of nations take the suffixes -icus, -ius; as, --Germānicus, German; Thrācius, Thracian.
- 3. Names of places take the suffixes -anus, -inus, -ensis, -aeus, -ius; as, --

Romanus, Roman;

Amerinus, of Ameria;

Athēniensis, Athenian; Smyrnaeus, of Smyrna;

Corinthius, Corinthian.

Note. — -anus and -ensis, appended to names of countries, designate something stationed in the country or connected with it, but not indigenous; as, --

bellum Africanum, a war (of Romans with Romans) in Africa. bellum Hispāniense, a war carried on in Spain. legiones Gallicanae, (Roman) legions stationed in Gaul.

- 3. Adjectives derived from Adjectives.
- 153. Diminutives in -lus sometimes occur; as,—

parvolus, little; misellus passer, poor little sparrow; pauperculus, needy.

- 4. Adjectives derived from Adverbs.
- 154. These end in -ernus, -ternus, -tīnus, -tīnus; as, --

hodiernus, of to-day (hodië); hesternus, of yesterday (herl); intestlinus, internal (intus); diütinus, long-lasting (diü).

C. VERBS.

1. Verbs derived from Verbs.

155. 1. INCEPTIVES OR INCHOATIVES. These end in -sco, and are formed from Present Stems. They denote the beginning of an action; as, —

labāscō, begin to totter (from labō); horrēsco, grow rough (from horreō); tremēscō, begin to tremble (from tremō); obdormīscō, fall asleep (from dormiō).

2. FREQUENTATIVES OR INTENSIVES. These denote a repeated or energetic action. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -tō or -sō. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -itō (not -ātō, as we should expect). Examples of Frequentatives are—

jacto, toss about, brandish (from jacio, hurl); curso, run hither and thither (from curro, run); volito, flit about (from volo, fly).

a. Some double Frequentatives occur; as, -

cantitō, sing over and over (cantō); cursitō, keep running about (cursō); ventitō, keep coming,

b. agito, set in motion, is formed from the Present Stem.

3. DESIDERATIVES. These denote a desire to do something. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -urio; as,—

ēsuriō, desire to eat, am hungry (edō); parturiō, want to bring forth, am in labor (pariō).

Verbs derived from Nouns and Adjectives (Denominatives).

- 156. Denominatives of the First Conjugation are mostly transitive, those of the Second exclusively intransitive. Those of the Third and Fourth Conjugations are partly transitive, partly intransitive. Examples are
 - a) From Nouns: -

fraudō, defraud (fraus); vestiō, clothe (vestis); flōreō, bloom (flōs).

b) From Adjectives: -

līberō, free (līber); saeviō, be fierce (saevus).

D. ADVERBS.

157. 1. Adverbs derived from verbs are formed from the Participial Stem by means of the suffix -im; as,—

certātim, emulously (certō); cursim, in haste (currō); statim immediately (stō).

- 2. Adverbs derived from nouns and adjectives are formed:
 - a) With the suffixes -tim (-sim), -ātim; as,—
 gradātim, step by step;
 paulātim, gradually;
 virītim, man by man.
 - b) With the suffix -tus; as, —
 antIquitus, of old;
 rādīcitus, from the roots.
 - c) With the suffix -ter; as, breviter, briefly.

1

II. COMPOUNDS.

- 158. I. Compounds are formed by the union of simple words. The second member usually contains the *essential meaning* of the compound; the first member expresses some modification of this.
- 2. Vowel changes often occur in the process of composition. Thus:
 - a. In the second member of compounds. (See § 7. 1.)
 - b. The final vowel of the stem of the first member of the compound often appears as I where we should expect of a sometimes it is dropped altogether, and in case of consonant stems I is often inserted; as.—

sīgnifer, standard-bearer; tubicen, trumpeter; māgnanimus, high-minded; mātricīda, matricide.

159. Examples of Compounds.

- I. Nouns:
 - a) Preposition + Noun; as,—

 dē-decus, disgrace;

 pro-avus, great-grandfather.
 - Noun + Verb Stem; as, —
 agri-cola, farmer;
 frātri-cīda, fratricide.
- 2. Adjectives: -
 - a) Preposition + Adjective (or Noun); as, —
 per-māgnus, very great;
 sub-obscūrus, rather obscure;
 ā-mēns, frantic.
 - b) Adjective + Noun; as, —
 māgn-animus, great-hearted;
 miseri-cors, compassionate.
 - c) Noun + Verb Stem; as,—
 parti-ceps, sharing;
 morti-fer, death-dealing.

3. Verbs: --

The second member is always a verb. The first may be -

a) A Noun; as,—

aedi-fico, build.

b) An Adjective; as, -

ampli-fico, enlarge.

c) An Adverb; as,—

male-dīcō, rail at.

d) Another Verb; as, -

cale-facio, make warm.

e) A Preposition; as, —

ab-jungō, detach; re-ferō, bring back; dis-cernō, distinguish; ex-spectō, await.

Note. — Here belong the so-called Inseparable Prepositions: —

ambi- (amb-), around; dis- (dir-, dI-), apart, asunder; por- forward; red- (re-), back; sed- (se-), apart from; ve-, without.

4. Adverbs: -

These are of various types; as, -

anteā, before; Ilicō (in locō), on the spot; imprīmīs, especially; obviam, in the way.

PART V.

SYNTAX.

160. Syntax treats of the use of words in sentences.

CHAPTER I. - Sentences.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

- 161. Sentences may be classified as follows:—
- I. DECLARATIVE, which state something; as,—
 puer sorībit, the boy is writing.
- 2. Interrogative, which ask a question; as,—
 quid puer scribit, what is the boy writing?
- 3. Exclamatory, which are in the form of an exclamation; as,—quot libros scribit, how many books he writes!
- 4. IMPERATIVE, which express a command or an admonition; as,—
 sorTbe, write!

FORM OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

- 162. Questions may be either Word-Questions or Sentence-Questions.
- 1. Word-Questions. These are introduced by the various interrogative pronouns and adverbs; such as—quis, qui, quālis, quantus, quot, quotiēns, quō, quā, etc. Thus:—

quis venit, who comes?
quam did manebit, how long will he stay?

- 2. Sentence-Questions. These are introduced
 - a) By nonne implying the answer 'yes'; as,—
 nonne vides, do you not see?
 - b) By num implying the answer 'no'; as,—
 num expectās, do you expect? (i.e. you don't expect, do you?)
 - c) By the enclitic -ne, appended to the emphatic word, and simply asking for information; as,—

vidēsne, do you see?

A question introduced by -ne may receive a special implication from the context; as,—

sensistine, did you not perceive?

- d) Sometimes by no special word, particularly in expressions of surprise or indignation; as,
 - tū in jūdicum conspectum venīre audēs, do you dare to come into the presence of the judges?
- 3. RHETORICAL QUESTIONS. Questions are sometimes such merely in form, being employed to express an emphatic assertion; as, quis dubitat, who doubts? (= no one doubts).
- 4. Double Questions. Double Questions are introduced by the following particles:—

utrum . . . an;
-ne an;
-me an.

If the second member is negative, annon (less often neone) is used. Examples:—

utrum honestum est an turpe,
honestumne est an turpe,
honestum est an turpe,
suntne dī annōn, are there gods or not?

a. By an ellipsis of the first member, an sometimes stands alone.
 Its force depends upon the context; as,—

Ā rēbus gerendīs abstrahit senectūs. Quibus? An els quae juventūte geruntur et vīribus? Old age (it is alleged) withdraws men from active pursuits. From what pursuits? Is it not merely from those which are performed by the strength of youth?

5. Answers.

- a. The answer YES is expressed by ita, etiam, vērō, sānē, or by repetition of the verb; as,—
 - 'visne locum mutemus?' 'sane.' 'Shall we change the place?' 'Certainly.'
 - 'estisne vos legatī?' 'sumus.' 'Are you envoys?' 'Yes.'
- b. The answer No is expressed by non, minime, minime vero, or by repeating the verb with a negative; as,—
 - 'jam ea praeteriit?' 'nōn.' 'Has it passed?' 'No.'
 'estne frāter intus?' 'nōn est.' 'Is your brother within?'
 'No.'

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

163. The two essential parts of a sentence are the Subject and Predicate.

The Subject is that concerning which something is said, asked, etc. The Predicate is that which is said, asked, etc., concerning the Subject.

SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

- 164. Sentences containing but one Subject and one Predicate are called SIMPLE SENTENCES, those containing more are called Compound Sentences. Thus puer libros legit, the boy reads books, is a Simple Sentence; but puer libros legit et epistulas scrībit, the boy reads books and writes letters, is a Compound Sentence. The different members of a compound Sentence are called Clauses.
- 165. COÖRDINATE AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES. Clauses which stand upon an equality are called COÖRDINATE; a Clause dependent upon another is called SUBORDINATE. Thus in puer libros legit et epistulas scrībit the two clauses are Coördinate; but in puer libros legit quos pater scrībit, the boy reads the books which his father writes, the second clause is Subordinate to the first.

CHAPTER II. — Syntax of Nouns.

SUBJECT.

- 166. The Subject of a Finite Verb (i.e. any form of the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative) is in the Nominative Case.
 - 1. The Subject may be -
 - a) A Noun or Pronoun; as,—
 puer scribit, the boy writes;
 hic scribit, this man writes.
 - b) An Infinitive; as, decorum est pro patria mori, to die for one's country is a noble thing.
 - c) A Clause; as, opportunē accidit quod vēnistī, it happened opportunely that you arrived.
- 2. A Personal Pronoun as Subject is usually implied in the Verb, and is not separately expressed; as,—

scrībō, İ write;

videt, he sees.

- a. But for the purpose of emphasis or contrast the Pronoun is expressed; as,—
 ego scrībō et tū legis, I write, and you read.
- 3. The verb is sometimes omitted when it can be easily supplied from the context, especially the auxiliary sum; as,—
- rēctē ille (sc. facit), he does rightly; consul profectus (sc. est), the consul set out.

PREDICATE NOUNS.

- 167. A PREDICATE NOUN is one connected with the Subject by some form of the verb **Sum** or a similar verb.
- 168. A Predicate Noun agrees with its Subject in Case; 1 as, —

¹ For the Predicate Genitive see \(\) 198, 3; 203, 5.

Cicero orator fuit, Cicero was an orator; Numa creatus est rex, Numa was elected king.

1. When possible the Predicate Noun usually agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as,—

philosophia est vitae magistra, philosophy is the guide of life.

- 2. Besides sum the verbs most frequently accompanied by a Predicate Noun are
 - a) fīō, ēvādō, existō; maneō; videor; as,—
 Croesus nōn semper mānsit rēx, Croesus did not always remain king.
 - b) Passive verbs of making, calling, regarding, etc.; as, oreor, appellor, habeor; as, —
 Rōmulus rōx appellātus est, Romulus was called king; habitus est deus, he was regarded as a god.

APPOSITIVES.

169. 1. An Appositive is a Noun explaining or defining another Noun denoting the same person or thing; as,—

Cicero consul, Cicero, the Consul; urbs Roma, the city Rome.

- An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case; as,—
 opera Ciceronis orātoris, the works of Cicero, the orator;
 apud Hērodotum, patrem historiae, in the works of Herodotus, the
 father of history.
- 3. When possible the Appositive agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as, —

assentātiō adjūtrīx vitiōrum, flattery, the promoter of evils.

- 4. A Locative may take in Apposition the Ablative of urbs or oppidum, with or without a preposition; as,—
- Corinthī, urbe praeclārā, or in urbe praeclārā, at Corinth, a famous city.
- 5. PARTITIVE APPOSITION. A Noun denoting a whole is frequently followed by an Appositive denoting a part; as,—
- mulites, fortissimus quisque, hostibus restiterunt, the soldiers, all the bravest of them, resisted the enemy.

THE CASES.

THE NOMINATIVE.

170. The Nominative is confined to its use as Subject, Appositive, or Predicate Noun, as already explained. See §§ 166-169.

THE VOCATIVE.

- 171. The Vocative is the Case of direct address; as,—orēdite mihi, jūdicēs, believe me, judges.
- I. By a species of attraction, the Nominative is occasionally used for the Vocative, especially in poetry and formal prose; as, audī tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban people!
- 2. Similarly the Appositive of a Vocative may, in poetry, stand in the Nominative; as, nāte, mea māgna potentia sõlus, O son, alone the source of my great power.

THE ACCUSATIVE.

- 172. The Accusative is the Case of the Direct Object.
- 173. The Direct Object may express either of the two following relations:—
 - A. The Person or Thing Affected by the action; as,—
 consulem interfecit, he slew the consul;
 lego librum, I read the book.
 - B. The RESULT PRODUCED by the action; as,—
 librum scrīpsī, I wrote a book (i.e. produced one);
 templum struit, he constructs a temple.
- 174. Verbs that admit a Direct Object of either of these two types are Transitive Verbs.
 - a. Verbs that regularly take a Direct Object are sometimes used without it. They are then said to be employed absolutely;
 as,
 - rūmor est meum gnātum amāre, it is rumored that my son is in love.

Accusative of the Person or Thing Affected.

175. I. This is the most frequent use of the Accusative; as in—

parentēs amāmus, we love our parents; mare aspicit, he gazes at the sea.

- 2. The following classes of Verbs taking an Accusative of this kind are worthy of note:
 - a) Many Intransitive Verbs, when compounded with a Preposition, become Transitive. Thus:—
 - 1) Compounds of circum, praeter, trāns; as,—hostēs circumstāre, to surround the enemy; urbem praeterīre, to pass by the city; mūrōs trānscendere, to climb over the walls.
 - 2) Less frequently, compounds of ad, per, in, sub; as,—adfre urbem, to visit the city;
 peragrare Italiam, to travel through Italy;
 infre magistratum, to take office;
 subfre perfeulum, to undergo danger.
 - b) Many Verbs expressing emotions, regularly Intransitive, have also a Transitive use; as, —
 queror fātum, I lament my fate;
 doleō ējus mortem, I grieve at his death;
 rīdeō tuam stultitiam, I laugh at your folly.
 So also lūgeō, maereō, mourn; gemō, bemoan; horreō, shudder, and others.
 - c) The impersonals decet, it becomes; dedecet, it is unbecoming; juvat, it pleases, take the Accusative of the Person Affected; as,—

mē decet haec dicere, it becomes me to say this.

d) In poetry many Passive Verbs, in imitation of Greek usage, are employed as Middles (§ 256, 1; 2), and take the Accusative as Object; as,—

galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet;
cīnctus tempora hederā, having bound his temples with
ivy;
nōdō sinūs collēcta, having gathered her dress in a knot.

Accusative of the Result Produced.

176. 1. The ordinary type of this Accusative is seen in such expressions as —

librum scrībō, I write a book; domum aedificō, I build a house.

- 2. Many Verbs usually Intransitive take a Neuter Pronoun, or Adjective used as an Accusative of Result. Thus:
 - a) A Neuter Pronoun; as,—

 haec gemēbat, he made these moans;
 illud glōrior. I make this boast:
 - eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes.
 b) A Neuter Adjective, particularly Adjectives of number or amount, multum, multa, omnia, pauca, etc.; as, —

multa dubito, I have many doubts; pauca studet, he has few interests; multum valet, he has great strength; nihil progreditur, he makes no progress.

Note. — In poetry other Adjectives are freely used in this construction; as,—
minitantem vāns, making vain threats;
acerba tuēns, giving a fierce look;
dulce loquentem, sweetly talking.

3. The adverbial use of several Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives grows out of this Accusative; as,—

multum sunt in vēnātione, they are much engaged in hunting.

- a. So also plūrimum, very greatly; plērumque, generally; aliquid, somewhat; quid, why? nihil, not at all; etc.
- 4. Sometimes an Intransitive Verb takes an Accusative of Result which is of kindred etymology with the Verb. This is called a Cognate Accusative, and is usually modified by an Adjective; as,—
 sempiternam servitūtem serviat, let him serve an everlasting slavery; vītam dūram vīxī, I have lived a hard life.
 - Sometimes the Cognate Accusative is not of kindred etymology, but merely of kindred meaning; as,—

stadium currit, he runs a race;
Olympia vincit, he wins an Olympic victory.

5. The Accusative of Result occurs also after Verbs of tasting and smelling; as,—

piscis mare sapit, the fish tastes of the sea; orationes antiquitatem redolent, the speeches smack of the past.

Two Accusatives — Direct Object and Predicate Accusative.

177. I. Many Verbs of *Making*, Choosing, Calling, Showing, and the like, take two Accusatives, one of the Person or Thing Affected, the other a Predicate Accusative; as,—

më hërëdem fëcit, he made me heir.

Here mē is Direct Object, hērēdem Predicate Accusative. So also —

> eum jūdicem cēpēre, they took him as judge; urbem Rōmam vocāvit, he called the city Rome; sē virum praestitit, he showed himself a man.

2. The Predicate Accusative may be an Adjective as well as a Noun; as,—

hominēs caecos reddit cupiditās, covetousness renders men blind; Apollo Socratem sapientissimum jūdicāvit, Apollo adjudged Socrates the wisest man.

- Some Verbs, as reddo, usually admit only an Adjective as the Predicate Accusative.
- 3. In the Passive the Direct Object becomes the Subject, and the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative; as,—

urbs Roma vocāta est, the city was called Rome.

 a. Not all Verbs admit the Passive construction; reddo and efficio, for example, never take it.

Two Accusatives - Person and Thing.

- 178. I. Some Verbs take two Accusatives, one of the Person Affected, the other of the Result Produced. Thus:—
 - a) Verbs of requesting and demanding, as,—
 ōtium dīvōs rogat, he asks the gods for rest;
 mē duās ōrātiōnēs postulās, you demand two speeches of me.

So also oro, posco, reposco, exposco, flagito, though some of these prefer the Ablative with ab to the Accusative of the Person; as,—

opem ā tē poscō, I demand aid of you.

- b) Verbs of teaching (doceo and its compounds); as,—
 tē litterās doceo, I teach you your letters.
- c) Verbs of inquiring; as, tā haec rogō, I ask you this; tā sententiam rogō, I ask you your opinion.
- d) Several Special Verbs; viz. moneō, admoneō, commoneō, coōgō, accūsō, arguō, and a few others. These admit only a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective as Accusative of the Thing; as,—

tē haec moneō, I give you this advice; mē id accūsās, you bring this accusation against me. id cōgit nōs nātūra, nature compels us (to) this.

- e) One Verb of concealing, cēlō; as,—
 nōn tē cēlāvī sermōnem, I have not concealed the conversation from you.
- 2. In the Passive construction the Accusative of the Person becomes the Subject, and the Accusative of the Thing is retained; as, omnes artes edoctus est, he was taught all accomplishments;

omnës artës ëdoctus est, he was taught all accomplishments; rogătus sum sententiam, I was asked my opinion; aliquid admonēmur, we are given some admonition.

a. Only a few Verbs admit the Passive construction.

Two Accusatives with Compounds.

179. I. Transitive compounds of trans may take two Accusatives, one dependent upon the Verb, the other upon the Preposition; as,—

mīlitēs flumen trāducit, he leads his soldiers across the river.

- 2. With other compounds this construction is rare.
- 3. In the Passive the Accusative dependent upon the preposition is retained; as,—

mīlitēs flumen trāducēbantur, the soldiers were led across the river.

Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative.

180. 1. The Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative denotes the part to which an action or quality refers; as,—

tremit artūs, literally, he trembles as to his limbs, i.e. his limbs tremble; nūda genū, lit. bare as to the knee, i.e. with knee bare; manūs revinctus, lit. tied as to the hands, i.e. with hands tied.

- 2. Note that this construction
 - a) Is borrowed from the Greek.
 - b) Is chiefly confined to poetry.
 - c) Usually refers to a part of the body.
 - d) Is used with Adjectives as well as Verbs.

Accusative of Time and Space.

181. 1. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are denoted by the Accusative; as,—

quadrāgintā annos vīxit, he lived forty years;

hīc locus passūs sescentos aberat, this place was six hundred paces away.

arborēs quīnquāgintā pedēs altae, trees fifty feet high. abhinc trēs annōs, three years ago.

2. Emphasis is sometimes added by using the Preposition per; as, per duös annös labörāvī, I toiled throughout two years.

Accusative of Limit of Motion.

- 182. I. The Accusative of Limit of Motion is used—
 - a) With names of Towns, Small Islands, and Peninsulas; as,—
 Rōmam vēnī, I came to Rome;
 Athēnās proficīscitur, he sets out for Athens;
 Dēlum pervēnī, I arrived at Delos.
 - b) With domum, domös, rūs; as, domum revertitur, he returns home; rūs ībō, I shall go to the country.

Note. — When **domus** means house (i.e. building), it takes a preposition; as, —

in domum veterem remigrare, to move back to an old house.

2. Other designations of place than those above mentioned require a Preposition to denote Limit of Motion; as,—

Ad Italiam vēnit, he came to Italy.

a. The Preposition is also customary when the Accusatives urbem or oppidum stand in apposition with the name of a town; as,—

Cirtam in urbem, to the city Cirta; Genēvam ad oppidum, to the town Geneva.

b. The name of a town denoting limit of motion may be combined with the name of a country or other word dependent upon a preposition; as,—

Thurios in Italiam pervectus, carried to Thurii in Italy; cum Acon ad exercitum vonisset, when he had come to the army at Ace.

3. To denote toward, to the vicinity of, in the vicinity of, ad is used; as,—

ad Tarentum vēnī, I came to the vicinity of Tarentum; ad Cannās pūgna facta est, a battle was fought near Cannæ.

4. In poetry the Accusative of any noun denoting a place may be used without a preposition to express the limit of motion; as, —

Ītaliam vēnit, he came to Italy.

5. The goal notion seems to represent the original function of the Accusative Case. Traces of this primitive force are recognizable in the phrase Infitias Ire, to deny (lit. to go to a denial), and a few other similar expressions.

Accusative in Exclamations.

183. The Accusative, generally modified by an Adjective, is used in Exclamations; as,—

mē miserum ah, wretched me! Ō fallācem spem, oh, deceptive hope!

Accusative as Subject of the Infinitive.

184. The Subject of the Infinitive is put in the Accusative; as,—

video hominem abire, I see that the man is going away.

Other Uses of the Accusative.

185. Here belong —

1. Some Accusatives which were originally Appositives; viz. —

id genus, of that kind; as, homines id genus, men of that kind (originally homines, id genus hominum, men, that kind of men);

virile secus, muliebre secus, of the male sex, of the female sex meam vicem, tuam vicem, etc., for my part, etc.; bonam partem, in large part; māximam partem, for the most part.

2. Some phrases of doubtful origin; as,-

id temporis, at that time; quod sī, but if; id aetātis, at that time; cētera, in other respects; dextrum, on the right; laevum, on the left.

THE DATIVE.

186. The Dative case in general expresses relations which are designated in English by the prepositions to and for.

Dative of Indirect Object.

- 187. The commonest use of the Dative is to denote the person to whom something is given, said, or done. Thus:—
- I. With transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative; as,—

hanc pecuniam mihi dat, he gives me this money; haec nobis dixit, he said this to us.

a. Some verbs which take this construction also admit another, particularly the verbs dono and circumdo. Thus:—

Either Themistoclī mūnera donāvit, he presented gifts to Themistocles, or

Themistoclem muneribus donavit, he presented Themistocles with gifts;

urbī mūrōs circumdat, he builds walls around the city, or urbem mūrīs circumdat, he surrounds the city with walls

II. With many intransitive verbs; as,—

nullI laborI cedit, he yields to no labor; tibi suscenseo, I am angry with you.

a. Here belong many verbs signifying favor, help, injure, please, displease, trust, distrust, command, obey, serve, resist, indulge, spare, pardon, envy, threaten, believe, persuade, and the like; as,—

Caesar popularibus favet, Caesar favors (i.e. is favorable to) the popular party;

amīcīs confido, I trust (to) my friends;

militibus ignoscit, he pardons (i.e. grants pardon to) the troops;

Orgetorix Helvētiis persuāsit, Orgetorix persuaded (made it acceptable to) the Helvetians;

bonis nocet qui malis parcit, he injures (does harm to) the good, who spares the bad.

NOTE.—It is to be borne in mind that these verbs do not take the Dative by virtue of their apparent English equivalence, but simply because they are intransitive, and adapted to an indirect object. Some verbs of the same apparent English equivalence are transitive and govern the Accusative; as, juvō, laedō, dēlectō. Thus: audentēs deus juvat, God helps the bold; nēminem laesit, he injured no one.

b. Verbs of this class are used in the passive only impersonally; as,—
 tibi parcitur, you are spared;
 mihi persuādētur, I am being persuaded;

III. With many verbs compounded with the prepositions: ad, ante, com-,² in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super, and sometimes circum.

These verbs fall into two main classes, -

el invidetur, he is envied.

1. Many simple verbs which cannot take a Dative of the indirect object become capable of doing so when compounded with a preposition; as,—

afflictis succurrit, he helps the afflicted; exercitui praefuit, he was in command of the army; intersum consiliis, I share in the deliberations.

¹ Many such verbs were originally intransitive in English also, and once governed the Dative.

² This was the original form of the proposition cum.

2. Many transitive verbs which take only a direct object become capable, when compounded, of taking a Dative also as indirect object; as,—

pecuniae pudorem anteponit, he puts honor before money; inicere spem amucis, to inspire hope in one's friends;

Labienum exercitui praefecit, he put Labienus in charge of the army.

Dative of Reference.

- 188. 1. The Dative of Reference denotes the person to whom a statement refers, of whom it is true, or to whom it is of interest; as,—
- mihi ante oculõs versāris, you hover before my eyes (lit. hover before the eyes to me);
- illi severitas amorem non deminuit, in his case severity did not diminish love (lit. to him severity did not diminish);
- intercludere hostibus commeatum, to cut off the supplies of the enemy.
 - a. Note the phrase alicui interdicere aqua et igni, to interdict one from fire and water.

NOTE. — The Dative of Reference, unlike the Dative of Indirect Object, does not modify the verb, but rather the sentence as a whole. It is often used where, according to the English idiom, we should expect a Genitive; so in the first and third of the above examples.

- 2. Special varieties of the Dative of Reference are
 - a) Dative of the Local Standpoint. This is regularly a participle; as,
 - oppidum prīmum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ēpīrō, the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (lit. to those coming from E.).
 - b) Ethical Dative. This name is given to those Dative constructions of the personal pronouns in which the connection of the Dative with the rest of the sentence is of the very slightest sort; as,
 - tū mihi istīus audāciam dēfendis? tell me, do you defend that man's audacity?
 - quid mihi Celsus agit? what is my Celsus doing? quid sibi vult? what does he mean? (lit. wish for himself?)

- c) Dative of Person Judging; as,
 - erit ille mihi semper deus, he will always be a god to me (i.e. in my opinion);
 - quae ista servitūs tam clārō hominī, how can that be slavery to so illustrious a man (i.e. to his mind)!
- d) Dative of Separation. Compounds of ab, de, ex, ad which have the general sense of taking away govern a Dative of the person, less often of the thing; as,
 - honorem detraxerunt homini, they took away the honor from the man;
 - Caesar regi tetrarchiam eripuit, Caesar took the tetrarchy away from the king;
 - silici scintillam excudit, he struck a spark from the flint.

Dative of Agency.

- 189. The Dative is used to denote agency —
- 1. Regularly with the Gerundive; as, -

voice and the perfect passive participle; as, -

- haec nobis agenda sunt, these things must be done by us; mihi eundum est, I must go (lit. it must be gone by me).
- a. To avoid ambiguity, ā with the Ablative is sometimes used with the Gerundive; as,—
 hostibus ā nōbīs parcerdum est, the enemy must be spared by us.
- 2. Much less frequently with the compound tenses of the passive
- disputātio, quae mihi nuper habita est, the discussion which was recently conducted by me.
- 3. Rarely with the uncompounded tenses of the passive; as,—honesta bonīs virīs quaeruntur, noble ends are sought by good men.

Dative of Possession.

190. The Dative of Possession occurs with the verb esse in such expressions as:—

mihi est liber, I have a book; mihi nomen est Mārcus, I have the name Marcus.

1. But with nomen est the name is more commonly attracted into the Dative; as, mihi nomen est Marco.

Dative of Purpose.

- 191. The Dative of Purpose designates the end toward which an action is directed or for which something exists. It is used—
- Unaccompanied by another Dative; as,—
 castrīs locum dēligere, to choose a place for a camp;
 legionēs praesidio relinquere, to leave the legions as a guard (lit. for a guard);
 receptuī canere, to sound the signal for a retreat.
- 2. Much more frequently in connection with another Dative of the person:
 - a) Especially with some form of esse; as,—
 fortunae tuae mihi curae sunt, your fortunes are a care
 to me (lit. for a care);
 nobis sunt odio, they are an object of hatred to us;
 cui bono? to whom is it of advantage?
 - b) With other verbs; as,—
 hōs tibi mūnerī mīsit, he has sent these to you for a present;
 Pausaniās Atticīs vēnit auxiliō, Pausanias came to the aid of the Athenians (lit. to the Athenians for help).
- In connection with the Gerundive; as,—
 decemviri legibus scribundis, decemvirs for codifying the laws.
 me gerendo bello ducem creavere, me they have made leader for carrying on the war.

NOTE. — This construction with the gerundive is not common till Livv.

Dative with Adjectives.

- 192. The use of the Dative with Adjectives corresponds very closely to its use with verbs. Thus:—
- 1. Corresponding to the Dative of Indirect Object it occurs with adjectives signifying: friendly, unfriendly, similar, dissimilar, equal, near, related to, etc.; as,—

mihi inimīcus, hostile to me; sunt proximī Germānīs, they are next to the Germans; noxiae poena pār estō, let the penalty be equal to the damage.

- a. For propior and proximus, with the Accusative, see § 141, 3.
- 2. Corresponding to the Dative of Purpose the Dative occurs with adjectives signifying: suitable, adapted, fit; as,—

castrīs idoneus locus, a place fit for a camp; apta dies sacrificio, a day suitable for a sacrifice.

NOTE. - Adjectives of this last class often take the Accusative with ad.

Dative of Direction.

193. In the poets the Dative is occasionally used to denote the direction of motion; as,—

it clamor caelo, the shout goes heavenward; cineros rīvo fluenti jace, cast the ashes toward the flowing stream.

1. By an extension of this construction the poets sometimes use the Dative to denote the *limit of motion*; as,—

dum Latio deos Inferret, while he was bringing his gods to Latium.

THE GENITIVE.

194. The Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

195. With Nouns the Genitive is the case which defines the meaning of the limited noun more closely. This relation is generally indicated in English by the preposition of. There are the following varieties of the Genitive with Nouns:—

Genitive of Origin, Genitive of Material, Genitive of Possession, Subjective Genitive, Objective Genitive, Genitive of the Whole, Appositional Genitive, Genitive of Quality.

196. Genitive of Origin; as, —

Marci filius, the son of Marcus.

197. Genitive of Material; as,—

talentum aurī, a talent of gold; modius frumentī, a peck of grain.

198. Genitive of Possession or Ownership; as,—domus Ciceronis, Cicero's house.

1. Here belongs the Genitive with causā and grātiā. The Genitive always precedes; as,—

hominum causā, for the sake of men; meorum amīcorum grātiā, for the sake of my friends.

- Instar (lit. image) also takes the Possessive Genitive; as,—
 equus Instar montis, a horse as large as a mountain.
- 3. The Possessive Genitive is often used predicatively, especially with esse and fier 7; as,—

domus est rēgis, the house is the king's;

stulti est in errore manere, it is (the part) of a fool to remain in error;

- de bello judicium imperatoris est, non mīlitum, the decision concerning war belongs to the general, not to the soldiers.
- 199. Subjective Genitive. This denotes the person who makes or produces something or who has a feeling; as,—

diota Platonis, the utterances of Plato; timores liberorum, the fears of the children.

200. Objective Genitive. This denotes the object of an action or feeling; as,—

metus deōrum, the fear of the gods; amor libertātis, love of liberty; cōnsuētūdō bonōrum hominum, intercourse with good men.

- This relation is often expressed by means of prepositions; as, amor ergā parentēs, love toward one's parents.
- **201.** Genitive of the Whole. This designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used—
- 1. With Nouns, Pronouns, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Ordinal Numerals; as,—

māgna pars hominum, a great part of mankind; duo mīlia peditum, two thousand foot-soldiers; quis mortālium, who of mortals? mājor frātrum, the elder of the brothers; gēns māxima Germānōrum, the largest tribe of the Germans; prīmus omnium, the first of all.

- a. Yet instead of the Genitive of the Whole we often find ex or dē with the Ablative, regularly so with Cardinal numbers and quidam; as,—fidēlissimus dē servis, the most trusty of the slaves; quidam ex amicis, certain of his friends; tinus ex militibus, one of the soldiers.
- b. In English we often use of where there is no relation of whole to part. In such cases the Latin is more exact, and does not use the Genitive; as,—

quot võs estis, how many of you are there? trecenti conjürāvimus, three hundred of us have conspired (i.e. we, three hundred in number).

2. The Genitive of the Whole is used also with the Nominative or Accusative Singular Neuter of Pronouns, or of Adjectives used substantively; also with the Adverbs parum, satis, and partim when used substantively; as,—

quid consili, what purpose? tantum cibi, so much food; plüs auctoritatis, more authority; minus laboris, less labor; satis pecūniae, enough money; parum industriae, too little industry.

- a. An Adjective of the second declension used substantively may be employed as a Genitive of the Whole; as, nihil boni, nothing good.
- But Adjectives of the third declension agree directly with the noun they limit; as, nihil dulcius, nothing sweeter.
- 3. Occasionally we find the Genitive of the Whole dependent upon Adverbs of place; as,—

ubi terrārum? ubi gentium? where in the world?

- a. By an extension of this usage the Genitive sometimes occurs in dependence upon pridio and postridio, but only in the phrases pridio ojus dioi, on the day before that; postridio ojus dioi, on the day after that.
- 202. Appositional Genitive. The Genitive sometimes has the force of an appositive; as,—

nomen regis, the name of king; poena mortis, the penalty of death; ars scribendi, the art of writing.

203. Genitive of Quality. The Genitive modified by an Adjective is used to denote quality. This construction presents several

1. To denote some internal or permanent characteristic of a person or thing; as,—

vir māgnae virtūtis, a man of great virtue; rationes ejus modī, considerations of that sort.

- a. Only a limited number of Adjectives occur in this construction, chiefly magnus, maximus, summus, tantus, along with ēlus.
- 2. To denote measure (breadth, length, etc.); as,—
 fossa quindecim pedum, a trench fifteen feet wide (or deep);
 exsilium decem annorum, an exile of ten years.
- 3. By omission of pretI (price), or some kindred word, tantI, quantI, parvI, māgnI, minōris, minimI, plūrimI, māximI are used predicatively to denote indefinite value; as,—

nülla studia tantī sunt, no studies are of so much value; māgnī opera ējus exīstimāta est, his assistance was highly esteemed.

- a. Pluris (not strictly an adjective) follows the same analogy.
- 4. By an extension of the notion of value, quanti, tanti, pluris, and minoris are also used with verbs of buying and selling, to denote indefinite price; as,—

quantI aedes emistI, at how high a price did you purchase the house?

5. Any of the above varieties of the Genitive of Quality may be used predicatively; as,—

tantae mõlis erat Rõmānam condere gentem, of so great difficulty was it to found the Roman race.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

- 204. The Genitive is used with many Adjectives to limit the extent of their application. Thus:—
- 1. With Adjectives signifying desire, knowledge, familiarity, memory, participation, power, fulness, and their opposites; as,—

studiōsus discendī, desirous of learning; perītus bellī, skilled in war; īnsuētus labōris, unused to toil; immemor mandātī tuī, unmindful of your commission; plēna perīculōrum est vīta, life is full of dangers.

a. Some participles used adjectively also take the Genitive; as,—
diligēns vēritātis, fond of truth;
amāns patriae, devoted to one's country.

- Sometimes with proprius and commūnis; as,—
 virī propria est fortitūdō, bravery is characteristic of a man.
 memoria est commūnis omnium artium, memory is common to all
 professions.
 - a. proprius and communis are also construed with the Dative.
- 3. With similis the Genitive is the commoner construction in Cicero, when the reference is to living objects; as,—

fīlius patris simillimus est, the son is exactly like his father. meī similis, like me; vestrī similis, like you.

- When the reference is to things, both Genitive and Dative occur; as, mors somnō (or somnī) similis est, death is like sleep.
- 4. In the poets and later prose writers the use of the Genitive with Adjectives is extended far beyond earlier limits; as, atrox animi, fierce of temper; incertus consilii, undecided in purpose.

GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

205. The Genitive is used with the following classes of Verbs:—

Meminī, Reminīscor. Oblīvīscor.

- 206. I. When referring to Persons
 - a. meminī takes the Genitive in the significations I bear in mind (memor sum), am mindful of, or make mention of; but the Accusative in the signification, I recall; as,—
 vīvorum meminī, I am mindful of the living;
 Achillos cūjus suprā meminimus, Achilles, of whom we
 - made mention above;
 Sullam meminī, I recall Sulla.
 - b. oblīvīscor regularly takes the Genitive; as,—
 Epicūrī non licet oblīvīscī, we mustn't forget Epicurus.
- 2. When referring to Things, memini, reminiscor, obliviscor take sometimes the Genitive, sometimes the Accusative, apparently without difference of meaning; as,—

animus praeteritorum meminit, the mind remembers the past; meministine nomina, do you remember the names? reminiscere veteris incommodi, remember the former disaster; reminiscons acerbitatem, remembering the severity.

 But neuter pronouns, and adjectives used substantively, regularly stand in the Accusative; as,—

haec memini, I remember this; multa reminiscor, I remember many things.

3. The phrase mihi (tibi, etc.) in mentem venit, following the analogy of memini, takes the Genitive; as,—

civium mihi in mentem venit, I remember the citizens.

Admoneo. Commoneo. Commonefacio.

207. These verbs, in addition to an Accusative of the person, occasionally take a Genitive of the thing; as,—

të admoneo amicitiae nostrae, I remind you of our friendship.

- a. But more frequently (in Cicero almost invariably) these verbs take dē with the Ablative; as,
 - dē pecūniā mē admonēs, you remind me of the money.
- b. A neuter pronoun or adjective used substantively regularly stands in the Accusative; as, tō hōc admoneō. I give you this warning.

Verbs of Judicial Action.

208. I. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting take the Genitive of the charge; as,—

mē fūrtī accūsat, he accuses me of theft; Verrem avāritiae coarguit, he convicts Verres of avarice; impietātis absolūtus est, he was acquitted of blasphemy.

- 2. Verbs of Condemning take
 - a. The Genitive of the charge; as, -

pecuniae publicae damnātus, condemned (on the charge)
of embezzlement (lit. public money);
capitis damnātus, condemned on a capital charge (lit. on a

b. The Ablative of the penalty; as, -

charge involving his head).

capite damnātus est, he was condemned to death;
mīlle nummīs damnātus est, he was condemned (to pay)
a thousand sesterces (lit. by a thousand sesterces, Abl.
Means).

3. Note the phrases: —

voti damnātus, voti rous, having attained one's prayer (lit. condemned on the score of one's vow);

dē vī, (accused, convicted, etc.) of assault; inter sīcāriōs, (accused, convicted, etc.) of murder.

Genitive with Impersonal Verbs.

209. I. The Impersonals pudet, paenitet, miseret, taedet, piget take the Accusative of the person affected, along with the Genitive of the person or thing toward whom the feeling is directed; as,—

pudet mē tuī, I am ashamed of you (lit. it shames me of you); paenitet mē hūjus factī, I repent of this act; eum taedet vītae, he is weary of life; pauperum tē miseret, you pity the poor.

- a. Instead of the Genitive of the thing we often find an Infinitive or Neuter Pronoun used as subject of the verb. Thus: —
 mē paenitet hōc fēcisse, I repent of having done this;
 mē hōc pudet, I am ashamed of this.
- Misereor and miseresco also govern the Genitive; as, miseremini sociorum, pity the allies.

Interest. Rēfert.

- 210. With interest, it concerns, three points enter into consideration; vis.
 - a) the person concerned;
 - b) the thing about which he is concerned;
 - c) the extent of his concern.
- **211.** I. The *person concerned* is regularly denoted by the Genitive; as,—

patris interest, it concerns the father.

a. But instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, meī, tuī, etc., the Latin uses the Ablative Singular Feminine of the Possessive, viz.: meā, tuā, etc.; as,—

meā interest, it concerns me.

NOTE - But the Latin says omnium nostrum interest, it concerns us all.

- 2. The thing about which a person is concerned is denoted—
 - a) by a Neuter Pronoun as subject; as,—
 hōc reī pūblicae interest, this concerns the state.
 - b) by an Infinitive; as,—
 omnium interest valēre, it concerns all to keep well.
 - c) by an Indirect Question; as,—
 meā interest quandō veniās, I am concerned as to when
 you are coming.
 - 3. The degree of concern is denoted
 - a) by the Genitive (of Quality): māgnī, parvī, etc.; as,—meā māgnī interest, it concerns me greatly.
 - b) by the Adverbs, magnopere, magis, maxime, etc.; as,—
 cīvium minime interest, it concerns the citizens very little.
 - c) by the Neuters, multum, plūs, minus, etc.; as, multum vestrā interest, it concerns you much.
- 4. Refert follows interest in its construction, except that it rarely takes the Genitive of the person. Thus:—

meā rēfert, it concerns me;

but rarely illius refert, it concerns him.

Genitive with Other Verbs.

212. I. Verbs of *Plenty* and *Want* sometimes govern the Genitive; as,—

pecuniae indiges, you need money.

- a. These verbs more commonly take the Ablative (§ 214, 1); indigeō is the only verb which has a preference for the Genitive.
- 2. Potior though usually followed by the Ablative, sometimes takes the Genitive, almost always so in Sallust; and regularly in the phrase: potīrī rērum, to get control of affairs.
 - In poetry some verbs take the Genitive in imitation of the Greek; as, —
 desine querellarum, cease your complaints;
 operum soluti, freed from their tasks.

THE ABLATIVE.

213. The Latin Ablative unites in itself three cases which were originally distinct both in form and in meaning; viz.—

The Ablative or from-case.

The Instrumental or with-case.

The Locative or where-case.

The uses of the Latin Ablative accordingly fall into Genuine Ablative uses, Instrumental uses, and Locative uses.

GENUINE ABLATIVE USES.

Ablative of Separation.

- 214. The Ablative of Separation is construed sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition.
- 1. The following words regularly take the Ablative without a preposition:
 - a) The Verbs of freeing: līberō, solvō, levō;
 - b) The Verbs of depriving: prīvō, spoliō, exuō, fraudō, nūdō:
 - c) The Verbs of lacking: egeo, careo, vaco;
 - d) The corresponding Adjectives, liber, inānis, vacuus, nūdus, and some others of similar meaning.

Thus: -

cūrīs līberātus, freed from cares;

Caesar hostes armis exuit, Caesar stripped the enemy of their arms;

caret sēnsū commūnī, he lacks common sense;

auxilio eget, he needs help;

bonorum vita vacua est metu, the life of the good is free from fear.

NOTE 1. — Yet Adjectives and libero may take the preposition ab, — regularly so with the Ablative of persons; as, —

urbem a tyranno liberarunt, they freed the city from the tyrant.

NOTE 2. - Indigeo usually takes the Genitive. See § 212, 1, a.

2. Of Verbs signifying to keep from, to remove, to withdraw, some take the preposition, others omit it. The same Verb often admits both constructions. Examples:—

abstinēre cibō, to abstain from food;

hostes finibus prohibuerunt, they kept the enemy from their borders; praedones ab Insula prohibuit, he kept the pirates from the island.

3. Other Verbs of separation usually take the Ablative with a Preposition, particularly compounds of dis- and sē-; as, —

dissentio ā tē, I dissent from you; sēcernantur ā nobīs, let them be separated from us.

Ablative of Source.

215. The Ablative of Source is used with the participles natus and ortus (in poetry also with editus, satus, and some others), to designate parentage or station; as,—

Jove natus, son of Jupiter;

summo loco natus, high-born (lit. born from a very high place); nobili genere ortus, born of a noble family.

- Pronouns regularly (nouns rarely) take ex; as, ex mē nātus, sprung from me.
- 2. To denote remoter descent, ortus ab, or oriundus (with or without ab), is used; as,—

ab Ulixe oriundus, descended from Ulysses.

Ablative of Agent.

- 216. The Ablative accompanied by a (ab) is used with passive verbs to denote the personal agent; as,
 - ā Caesare accūsātus est, he was arraigned by Caesar.
- 1. Collective nouns referring to persons, and abstract nouns when personified, may be construed as the personal agent. Thus:—

hostës ā fortūnā dēserēbantur, the enemy were deserted by Fortune; ā multitūdine hostium montes tenebantur, the mountains were held

by a multitude of the enemy.

2. Names of animals sometimes admit the same construction. The a canibus laniatus est, he was torn to pieces by dogs.

Ablative of Comparison.

217. I. The Ablative is often used with Comparatives in the sense of than; as,—

melle dulcior, sweeter than honey;
patria mihi vītā cārior est, my country is dearer to me than life.

- 2. This construction, as a rule, occurs only as a substitute for quam (than) with the Nominative or Accusative. In other cases quam must be used; as,—
- tuī studiosior sum quam illīus, I am fonder of you than of him. Studiosior illo would have meant, I am fonder of you than he is.
- 3. Plüs, minus, amplius, longius are often employed as the equivalents of plüs quam, minus quam, etc. Thus:—
- amplius vīgintī urbēs incenduntur, more than twenty cities are
 fired;

minus quinque milia processit, he advanced less than five miles.

4. Note the use of opinione with Comparatives; as, — opinione celerius venit, he comes more quickly than expected (lit, than opinion),

INSTRUMENTAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Means.

- 218. The Ablative is used to denote means or instrument; as,—
- Alexander sagittā vulnerātus est, Alexander was wounded by an arrow.

There are the following special varieties of this Ablative: -

- 1. Ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds take the Ablative; as,—
- divitis utitur, he uses his wealth (lit. he benefits himself by his wealth);
- wītā fruitur, he enjoys life (lit. he enjoys himself by life);
 mūnere fungor, I perform my duty (lit. I busy myself with duty);
 carne wescuntur, they eat flesh (lit. feed themselves by means of);
 urbe potītus est, he got possession of the city (lit. made himself powerful by the city).
 - a. Potior sometimes governs the Genitive. See § 212, 2.

- 2. With opus est (rarely usus est), there is need; as,—duce nobis opus est, we need a leader.
 - a. A Neuter Pronoun or Adjective often stands as subject with opus as predicate. Thus:—

hoc mihi opus est, this is necessary for me.

- b. An ordinary substantive rarely stands as subject. Thus dux nobis opus est is a rare form of expression.
- c. Note the occasional use of a perfect passive participle with opus est; as,—

opus est properato, there is need of haste.

- 3. With nītor, innīxus, and frētus; as,—
 nītitur hastā, he rests on a spear (lit. supports himself by a spear);
 frētus virtūte, relying on virtue (lit. supported by virtue).
- 4. With continers, consistere, consist of; as, nervis et ossibus continentur, they consist of sinews and bones (lit. they are held together by sinews and bones); mortals consistit corpore mundus, the world consists of mortal substance (lit. holds together by means of, etc.).
 - 5. With miscere and mutare; as,—
 mella vino miscere, to mix honey with wine;
 pacem bello mutant, they change peace for war (lit. with war).
- 6. In expressions of the type: quid hōc homine faciās, what can you do with this man? quid meā Tulliolā fiet, what will become of my dear Tullia? (lit. what will be done with her?)
- 7. In the following special phrases at variance with the ordinary English idiom: —

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proelio contendere, vincere, to contend, conquer in battle; proelio lacessere, to provoke to battle; assustus (assustactus) labore, accustomed to toil; curru vehi, to ride in a chariot; pedibus ire, to go on foot; tibiis (fidibus) canere, to play the flute (lyre); pila lüdere, to play ball; castris se tenere, to keep in camp;
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and some others.

- 8. With Verbs of filling and Adjectives of plenty; as,—
 fossās virgultīs complērunt, they filled the trenches with brush.
 - a. But plēnus more commonly takes the Genitive. See § 204, 1.
- 9. Under 'Means' belongs also the Ablative of the way by which; as,—

vīnum Tiberī dēvectum, wine brought down (by) the Tiber.

10. The means may be a person as well as a thing. Thus:—
militibus a lacu Lemanno ad montem Juram murum perducit, with
(i.e. by means of) his troops he runs a wall from Lake Geneva to Mt. Jura.

Ablative of Cause.

- 219. The Ablative is used to denote cause; as,—
 multa gloriae cupiditate fecit, he did many things on account of his
 love of glory.
- So especially with verbs denoting mental states; as, delector, gaudeo, laetor, glorior, fido, confido. Also with contentus; as,—
- fortuna amīcī gaudeo, I rejoice at the fortune of my friend (i.e. on account of it);

victoriā suā gloriantur, they exult over their victory;

- nătură loci confidebant, they trusted in the character of their country (lit. were confident on account of the character).
 - a. fido and confido always take the Dative of the person (§ 187, II. a); sometimes the Dative of the thing.
- 2. As Ablatives of Cause are to be reckoned also such Ablatives as jussü, by order of, injussü, rogātü, etc.

Ablative of Manner.

220. The Ablative with cum is used to denote manner; as,—

cum gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with dignity.

1. The preposition may be omitted when the Ablative is modified by an adjective; as,—

māgnā gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with great dignity.

2. The preposition is regularly omitted in the expressions jūre, injūriā, jocō, vī, fraude, voluntāte, fūrtō, silentiō.

3. A special variety of the Ablative of Manner denotes that in accordance with which or in pursuance of which anything is or is done. It is generally used without a preposition. Thus:—

meā sententiā, according to my opinion; suīs mōribus, in accordance with their custom; suā sponte, voluntarily, of their own accord; eā condicione, on these terms.

Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

221. The Ablative is often used to denote an attendant circumstance of an action or an event; as,—

bonīs auspiciīs, under good auspices;

more we want.

nulla est altercătio clămoribus umquam habita majoribus, no debate was ever held under circumstances of greater applause;

exstinguitur ingentī lūctū provinciae, he dies under circumstances of great grief on the part of the province;

longo intervallo sequitur, he follows at a great distance.

Ablative of Accompaniment.

222. The Ablative with cum is used to denote accompaniment; as,—

cum comitibus profectus est, he set out with his attendants; cum febrī rediit, he returned with a fever.

1. In military expressions the Ablative may stand without cum when modified by any adjective except a numeral; as,—

omnibus copiīs, ingentī exercitū, māgnā manū; but always cum exercitū, cum duābus legionibus.

Ablative of Degree of Difference.

223. The Ablative is used with comparatives and words involving comparison (as post, ante, īnfrā, suprā; superāre, surpass) to denote the degree of difference; as,—dīmidiō minor, smaller by a half; tribus pedibus altior, three feet higher; paulō post, a little afterwards; quō plūra habēmus, eō cupimus ampliōra, the more we have, the

Ablative of Quality.

224. The Ablative, modified by an adjective, is used to denote quality; as,—

puella eximiă fôrmă, a girl of exceptional beauty; vir singulărī industriă, a man of singular industry.

- The Ablative of Quality may also be used predicatively; as, est māgnā prūdentiā, he is (a man) of great wisdom; bono animo sunt, they are of good courage.
- 2. In place of the Adjective we sometimes find a limiting Genitive; as,—sunt specië et colore tauri, they are of the appearance and color of a bull.
- 3. In all numerical designations of weight, value, dimension, etc., the Genitive of Quality takes the place of the Ablative of Quality. See § 203. 2.

Ablative of Price.

225. With verbs of buying and selling, price is designated by the Ablative; as,—

servum quinque minis ëmit, he bought the slave for five minae.

 The Ablatives māgnō, plūrimō, parvō, minimō (by omission of pretiō) are used to denote indefinite price; as,—

aedēs māgnō vēndidit, he sold the house for a high price.

2. For the Genitive of Indefinite Price, see § 203, 4.

Ablative of Specification.

- 226. The Ablative of Specification is used to denote that in respect to which something is or is done; as,—
- Helvētiī omnibus Gallīs virtūte praestābant, the Helvetians surpassed all the Gauls in valor;

pede claudus, lame in his foot.

I. Note the phrases: -

mājor nātū, older (lit. greater as to age); minor nātū, younger.

2. Here belongs the use of the Ablative with dignus and indignus; as,—

dīgnī honore, worthy of honor; fidē indīgnī, unworthy of confidence,

Ablative Absolute.

- 227. The Ablative Absolute is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. In its commonest form it consists of a noun or pronoun limited by a participle; as,—
- urbe captā, Aenēās fūgit, when the city had been captured, Aeneas fled (lit. the city having been captured).
- Instead of a participle we often find an adjective or noun; as, vīvō Caesare rēs pūblica salva erat, while Caesar was alive the state was safe (lit. Caesar being alive);
- Tarquiniō rēge, Pythagorās in Italiam vēnit, in the reign of Tarquin Pythagoras came into Italy (lit. Tarquin being king).
- Cn. Pompējō, M. Crassō consulibus, in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey and Marcus Crassus.
- 2. The Ablative Absolute is generally used in Latin where in English we employ subordinate clauses. Thus the Ablative Absolute may correspond to a clause denoting
 - a) Time, as in the foregoing examples.
 - b) Condition; as,
 - omnēs virtūtēs jacent, voluptāte dominante, all virtues lie prostrate, if pleasure is master.
 - c) Opposition; as,
 - perditīs omnibus rēbus, virtūs sē sustentāre potest, though everything else is lost, yet Virtue can maintain herself.
 - d) Cause; as,
 - nullo adversante regnum obtinuit, since no one opposed him, he secured the throne.
 - e) Attendant circumstance; as,
 - passis palmis pacem petiverunt, with hands outstretched they sued for peace.
- 3. An Infinitive or clause sometimes occurs in the Ablative Absolute construction in Livy and later writers; as,
 - audītō eum fūgisse, when it was heard that he had fled.
- 4. A noun or pronoun stands in the Ablative Absolute construction only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the clause in which it stands. Exceptions to this principle are extremely rare.

LOCATIVE USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Place.

A. Place where.

228. The place where is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as,—

in urbe habitat, he dwells in the city.

- 1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz.
 - a) Names of towns,—except Singulars of the First and Second Declensions; as,—

Carthagine, at Carthage; Athenis, at Athens; Vēils, at Veii.

b) The general words loco, locis, parte, also many words modified by totus or even by other Adjectives; as,—

hoc loco, at this place; totis castris, in the whole camp.

- c) The special words: for is, out of doors; ruri, in the country; terra marique, on land and sea.
- d) The poets freely omit the preposition with any word denoting place; as,—

stant litore puppes, the ships rest on the beach.

B. Place from which.1

229. Place from which is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as,—

ab Italiā profectus est, he set out from Italy; ex urbe rediit, he returned from the city.

- 1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz.
 - a) Names of towns and small islands; as,—
 Rōmā profectus est, he set out from Rome;
 Rhodō revertit, he returned from Rhodes.

¹ Place from which, though strictly a Genuine Ablative use, is treated here for sake of convenience.

- b) domo, from home; rure, from the country.
- c) Freely in poetry; as,—

Italia decessit, he withdrew from Italy.

- 2. With names of towns, ab is used to mean from the vicinity of, or to denote the point whence distance is measured; as,
 - ā Gergoviā discessit, he withdrew from the vicinity of Gergovia.
 - ā Romā X mīlia aberat, he was ten miles distant from Rome.

Urbe and oppido, when standing in apposition with a town name, are accompanied by a preposition; as,—

Curibus ex oppido Sabinorum, from Cures, a town of the Sabines.

Ablative of Time.

A. Time at which.

230. The Ablative is used to denote the time at which; as,—

quarta hora mortuus est, he died at the fourth hour; anno septuagesimo consul creatus, elected consul in his seventieth year.

- 1. Any word denoting a period of time may stand in this construction, particularly annus, vēr, aestās, hiems, diēs, nox, hōra, comitia (Election Day), lūdī (the Games), etc.
- 2. Words not denoting time require the preposition in, unless accompanied by a modifier. Thus:—

in pace, in peace; in bello, in war; but secundo bello Pūnico, in the second Punic War.

3. Expressions like in eo tempore, in summa senectute take the preposition because they denote *situation* rather than *time*.

B. Time within which.

231. Time within which is denoted by the Ablative either with or without a preposition; as,—

stella Săturnī trīgintā annīs cursum conflicit, the planet Saturn completes its orbit within thirty years; ter in anno, thrice in the course of the year.

Occasionally the Ablative denotes duration of time; as,—
 blenniō prōsperds rōs habuit, for two years he had a prosperous administration.

THE LOCATIVE.

- 232. The Locative case occurs only in the following words:—
- 1. Regularly in the Singular of names of towns and small islands of the first and second declensions, to denote the place in which; as,—

Romae, at Rome;

Corinthī, at Corinth;

Rhodi, at Rhodes.

2. In the following special forms: -

domī, at home;

humI, on the ground; mIlitiae, in war;

bellī, in war;

herī, yesterday.

vesperi, at evening;

- 3. Note the phrase pendere animi, lit. to be in suspense in one's mind.
 - Consonant Stems occasionally form a Locative in -I; as, —
 Lacedaemoni, at Sparta; Carthagini, at Carthage;
 Thouri, at Tibur.

CHAPTER III. - Syntax of Adjectives.

- 233. 1. The word with which an Adjective agrees is called its Subject.
- 2. Attributive and Predicate Adjectives. An Attributive Adjective is one that limits its subject directly; as,—

vir sapiēns, a wise man;

A Predicate Adjective is one that limits its subject through the medium of a verb (usually esse); as,—

vir est sapiens, the man is wise; vir videbātur sapiens, the man seemed wise; vir jūdicātus est sapiens, the man was judged wise.

3. Participles and Adjective Pronouns have the construction of Adjectives.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

- 234. Agreement with One Noun. When an Adjective limits one noun it agrees with it in Gender, Number, and Case.
- 1. Two Adjectives in the Singular may limit a noun in the Plural; as, prīma et vīcēsima legiōnēs, the first and twentieth legions.
- 2. A Predicate Adjective may stand in the Neuter when its Subject is Masculine or Feminine and denotes a thing; as,—

mors est miserum, death is a wretched thing.

235. Agreement with Two or More Nouns.

A. AGREEMENT AS TO NUMBER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in number with the nearest noun; as,—

pater tuus et mater, your father and mother; eadem alacritas et studium, the same eagerness and zeal.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative, it is regularly Plural; as,—

pax et concordia sunt pulchrae, peace and concord are glorious.

B. AGREEMENT AS TO GENDER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in gender with the nearest noun; as,—

rēs operae multae ac laboris, a matter of much effort and labor.

- 2. When the Adjective is Predicative
 - a) If the nouns are of the same gender, the Adjective agrees with them in gender; as,—

pater et filius captī sunt, father and son were captured.

Yet with feminine abstract nouns, the Adjective is more frequently Neuter; as,—

stultitia et timiditäs fugienda sunt, folly and commust be shunned

- b) If the nouns are of different gender; then,
 - a) In case they denote persons, the Adjective is Masculine; as,—
 - pater et mater mortuï sunt, the father and mother have died.
 - β) In case they denote things, the Adjective is Neuter; as, —
 - honores et victoriae fortuïta sunt, honors and victories are accidental.
 - γ) In case they include both persons and things, the Adjective is,
 - aa) Sometimes Masculine; as, -
 - domus, uxor, liberi inventi sunt, home, wife, and children are secured.
 - $\beta\beta$) Sometimes Neuter; as,—
 - parentēs, līberōs, domōs vīlia habēre, to hold parents, children, houses, cheap.
 - γγ) Sometimes it agrees with the nearest noun; as, populī provinciaeque līberātae sunt, nations and provinces were liberated.
- c) Construction according to Sense. Sometimes an Adjective does not agree with a noun according to strict grammatical form, but according to sense; as,
 - pars bestis objects sunt, part (of the men) were thrown to beasts.

ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY.

236. I. Plural Adjectives used Substantively. Adjectives are quite freely used as Substantives in the Plural. The Masculine denotes persons; the Neuter denotes things; as,—

doctī, scholars;
malī, the wicked;
magna, great things;
Graecī, the Greeks;
nostrī, our men.

2. Neuter Plural Adjectives thus used are confined mainly to the Nominative and Accusative cases. Such forms as māgnōrum, omnium; māgnīs, omnibus, would ordinarily lead to ambiguity; yet where there is no ambiguity, they sometimes occur; as,—

parva componere māgnīs, to compare small things with great. Otherwise the Latin says: māgnārum rērum, māgnīs rēbus, etc.

- 237. SINGULAR ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY. Adjectives are less freely used as Substantives in the Singular than in the Plural.
 - Masculine Adjectives occur only occasionally in this use; as, probus invidet nēminī, the honest man envies nobody.
 - a. Usually vir, homō, or some similar word is employed; as,—
 homō doctus, a scholar;
 vir Rōmānus, a Roman.
 - But when limited by a pronoun any adjective may be so used; as,—

hīc doctus, this scholar; doctus quīdam, a certain scholar.

2. Neuters are likewise infrequent; as,—

vērum, truth; jūstum, justice; honestum, virtue.

a. This substantive use of Neuter Singulars is commonest in the construction of the Genitive of the Whole, and after Prepositions; as,—

aliquid vērī, something true; nihil novī, nothing new; in mediō, in the midst.

238. From Adjectives which, like the above, occasionally admit the substantive use, must be carefully distinguished certain others which have become nouns; as,—

adversārius, opponent; aequālis, contemporary; amīcus, friend; cognātus, kinsman; hTberna, winter quarters; propinquus, relative; socius, partner; sodālis, comrade;

vicinus, neighbor; etc.

ADJECTIVES WITH THE FORCE OF ADVERBS.

239. The Latin often uses an Adjective where the English idiom employs an Adverb or an adverbial phrase; as,—

senātus frequēns convēnit, the senate assembled in great numbers; fuit assiduus mēcum, he was constantly with me.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

240. 1. The Comparative often corresponds to the English Positive with 'rather,' 'somewhat,' 'too'; as, —

senectūs est loquācior, old age is rather talkative.

2. So the Superlative often corresponds to the Positive with 'very'; as,—

vir fortissimus, a very brave man.

3. Strengthening Words. Vel and quam are often used with the Superlative as strengthening particles, vel with the force of 'very,' and quam with the force of 'as possible'; as,—

vel māximus, the very greatest; quam māximae copiae, as great forces as possible.

4. Phrases of the type 'more rich than brave' regularly take the Comparative in both members: as.—

exercitus erat ditior quam fortior, the army was more rich than brave.

OTHER PECULIARITIES.

241. 1. Certain Adjectives may be used to denote a part of an object, chiefly prīmus, extrēmus, summus, medius, īnfimus, īmus; as,—summus mons, the top of the mountain;

extrema hieme, in the last part of the winter.

2. Prior, prīmus, ultimus, and postrēmus are frequently equivalent to a relative clause; as,—

prīmus eam vīdī, I was the first who saw her; ultimus dēcessit, he was the last who withdrew.

3. When multus and another adjective both limit the same noun, et is generally used; as,—

multae et māgnae cogitātiones, many (and) great thoughts.

CHAPTER IV. - Syntax of Pronouns.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

242. I. The Personal Pronouns as subjects of verbs are, as a rule, not expressed except for the purpose of emphasis, contrast, or clearness. Thus ordinarily:—

videō, I see; amat, he loves.

But ego të video, et tu më vidës, I see you, and you see me

2. The Genitives meī, tuī, nostrī, vestrī are used only as Objective Genitives; nostrum and vestrum as Genitives of the Whole. Thus:—

memor tuī, mindful of you; dēsīderium vestrī, longing for you; nēmō vestrum, no one of you.

- a. But nostrum and vestrum are regularly used in place of the Possessive in the phrases omnium nostrum, omnium vestrum.
- 3. The First Plural is often used for the First Singular of Pronouns and Verbs. Compare the Eng. editorial 'we.'
- 4. When two Verbs govern the same object, the Latin does not use a pronoun with the second, as is the rule in English. Thus:—
- virtus amīcitiās conciliat et conservat, virtue establishes friendships and maintains them (not eas conservat).

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

243. I. The Possessive Pronouns, as a rule, are not employed except for the purpose of *clearness*. Thus:—
patrem amo. I love my father.

de filii morte flebas, you wept for the death of your son. But —

dē morte fīliī meī flēbās, you wept for the death of my son.

- a. When expressed merely for the sake of clearness, the possessive usually stands after its noun; but in order to indicate emphasis or contrast, it precedes; as,
 - suā manū līberos occīdit, with his own hand he slew his children;

meā quidem sententiā, in my opinion at least.

2. Sometimes the Possessive Pronouns are used with the force of an Objective Genitive; as,—

metus vester, fear of you; desiderium tuum, longing for you.

3. For special emphasis, the Latin employs **ipsīus** or **ipsōrum**, in apposition with the Genitive idea implied in the Possessive; as,—

meā ipsīus operā, by my own help; nostrā ipsōrum operā, by our own help;

a. So sometimes other Genitives; as,—

meā unius operā, by the assistance of me alone.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

- 244. I. The Reflexive Pronoun se and the Possessive Reflexive sups have a double use:—
- I. They may refer to the subject of the clause (either principal or subordinate) in which they stand,—'Direct Reflexives'; as,—

sē amant, they love themselves; suōs amīcōs adjuvat, he helps his own friends; eum ōrāvī, ut sē servāret, I besought him to save himself.

- II. They may stand in a subordinate clause and refer to the subject of the principal clause, 'Indirect Reflexives'; as, —
- mē orāvit ut sē dēfenderem, he besought me to defend him (lit. that I defend himself),
- më oraverunt, ut fortunarum suarum defensionem susciperem, they besought me to undertake the defense of their fortunes.
 - a. The Indirect Reflexive is mainly restricted to those clauses which express the thought, not of the author, but of the subject of the principal clause.
- 2. The Genitive suī is regularly employed, like meī and tuī, as an Objective Genitive, e.g. oblītus suī, forgetful of himself; but it occasionally occurs particularly in post-Augustan writers in place of the Possessive suus; as, fruitur fāmā suī, he enjoys his own fame.
- 3. Se and suus are sometimes used in the sense, one's self, one's own, where the reference is not to any particular person; as,—

sē amāre, to love one's self; suum genium propitiāre, to propitiate one's own genius. 4. Suus sometimes occurs in the meaning his own, their own, etc. referring not to the subject but to an oblique case; as,—

Hannibalem suī cīvēs ē cīvitāte ējēcērunt, his own fellow-citizens drove out Hannibal.

a. This usage is particularly frequent in combination with quisque; as,—

suus quemque error vexat, his own error troubles each.

5. The Reflexives for the first and second persons are supplied by the oblique cases of ego and tū (§ 85); as,—

vos defenditis, you defend yourselves.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

245. I. The Latin has no special reciprocal pronoun ('each other'), but expresses the reciprocal notion by the phrases: inter nos, inter vos, inter so; as,—

Belgae obsides inter se dederunt, the Belgae gave each other hostages (lit. among themselves);

amamus inter nos, we love each other:

Gallī inter sē cohortātī sunt, the Gauls exhorted each other.

a. Note that the Object is not expressed in sentences of this type.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Hīc, Ille, Iste.

- **246.** I. Where hio and ille are used in contrast, hio usually refers to the latter of two objects, and ille to the former.
 - 2. Hic and ille are often used in the sense of 'the following'; as,-

Themistocles his verbis epistulam misit, Themistocles sent a letter (couched) in the following words;

illud intellego, omnium ora in me conversa esse, I understand this, that the faces of all are turned toward me.

- 3. Ille often means the famous; as, Solon ille, the famous Solon.
- 4. Iste frequently involves contempt; as, iste homō, that fellow!
- 5. The above pronouns, along with is, are usually attracted to the gender of a predicate noun; as, hīo est honor, meminisse officium suum, this is an honor, to be mindful of one's duty.

Is.

- 247. I. Is often serves as the antecedent of the relative quI. Thus:—
- Māximum, eum quī Tarentum recēpit, dīlēxī, I loved Maximus, the man who retook Tarentum.
 - a. Closely akin to this usage is is in the sense of such (= tālis);
 as,
 - non sum is qui terrear, I am not such a person as to be frightened.
 - b. Note the phrase id quod, where id stands in apposition with an entire clause; as,
 - non suspicabatur (id quod nunc sentiet) satis multos testes nobis reliquos esse, he did not suspect (a thing which he will now perceive) that we had witnesses enough left.

Yet quod alone, without preceding id, sometimes occurs in this use.

- 2. Is also in all cases serves as the personal pronoun of the third person, 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'they,' 'them.'
- 3. When the English uses 'that of,' 'those of' to avoid repetition of the noun, the Latin omits the pronoun; as,—
- in exercitū Sullae et posteā in Crassī fuerat, he had been in the army of Sulla and afterward in that of Crassus;
- nullae me fabulae delectant nisi Plautī, no plays delight me except those of Plautus.
- 4. Note the phrases et is, et ea, etc., in the sense: and that too; as,—vincula, et ea sempiterna, imprisonment, and that too permanently.

Īdem.

- 248. 1. Idem in apposition with the subject or object often has the force of also, likewise; as,—
- quod idem mihi contigit, which likewise happened to me (lit. which, the same thing);
- bonus vir, quem eundem sapientem appellāmus, a good man, whom we call also wise.
 - 2. For idem atque (ac), the same as, see § 341, 1, c.

Ipse.

249. 1. Ipse, literally self, acquires its special force from the context; as,—

eō ipsō diē, on that very day;

ad ipsam ripam, close to the bank;

ipso terrore, by mere fright;

valvae se ipsae aperuerunt, the doors opened of their own accord; ipse aderat, he was present in person.

2. The reflexive pronouns are often emphasized by the addition of ipse, but ipse in such cases, instead of standing in apposition with the reflexive, more commonly agrees with the subject; as,—

sēcum ipsī loquuntur, they talk with themselves; sē ipse continēre non potest, he cannot contain himself.

3. Ipse is also used as an Indirect Reflexive for the purpose of marking a contrast or avoiding an ambiguity; as,—

Persae pertimuërunt në Alcibiadës ab ipsīs dëscīsceret et cum suīs in grātiam redīret, the Persians feared that Alcibiades would break with them and become reconciled with his countrymen.

ea molestissime ferre debent homines quae ipsorum culpa contracta sunt, men ought to chafe most over those things which have been brought about by their own fault (as opposed to the fault of others).

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

250. Agreement. I. The Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender and Number, but its case is determined by its construction in the clause in which it stands: as.—

mulier quam vidēbāmus, the woman whom we saw; bona quibus fruimur, the blessings which we enjoy.

- 2. Where the antecedent is compound, the same principles for number and gender prevail as in case of predicate adjectives under similar conditions (see \S 235, B, 2). Thus:—
- pater et filius, quī captī sunt, the father and son who were captured; stultitia et timiditās quae fugienda sunt, folly and cowardice which must be shunned;
- honores et victoriae quae sunt fortuita, honors and victories which are accidental.

- 3. The Relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun (either Nominative or Accusative) instead of its antecedent; as,—
- carcer, quae lautumiae vocantur, the prison, which is called Lautumiae;
- Celtae, quae est tertia pars, the Celts, who are the third part.
- 4. Sometimes the Relative takes its gender and number from the meaning of its antecedent; as,—
- pars quī bēstils objectī sunt, a part (of the men) who were thrown to beasts.
- 5. Occasionally the Relative is attracted into the case of its antecedent; as,
 - nātus eo patre quo dīxī, born of the father that I said.
- 251. Antecedent. 1. The antecedent of the Relative is sometimes omitted; as,—
- quī nātūram sequitur sapiens est, he who follows Nature is wise.
- 2. The antecedent may be implied in a possessive pronoun (or rarely an adjective); as,—
- nostra quī remānsimus caedēs, the slaughter of us who remained; servīlī tumultū, quōs ūsus ac disciplīna sublevārunt, at the uprising of the slaves, whom experience and discipline assisted (servīlī = servōrum).
- Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with the Relative: as, erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus, there were two routes, by which (routes).
- 4. Incorporation of Antecedent in Relative Clause. The antecedent is often incorporated in the relative clause. Thus:—
 - a) When the relative clause stands first; as,—
 quam quisque novit artem in hāc sē exerceat, let each one practice the branch which he knows.
 - b) When the antecedent is an appositive; as,—
 non longo a Tolosatium finibus absunt, quae cīvitas
 est in provincia, they are not far from the borders of
 the Tolosates, a state which is in our province.
 - c) When the logical antecedent is a superlative; as,—
 Themistoclės dė servis suis, quem habuit fidėlissimum
 mīsit, Themistocles sent the most trusty slave he had.

- d) In expressions of the type quā es prūdentiā; quae tua est prūdentia, such is your prudence (lit. of which prudence you are; which is your prudence).
- 5. The Relative is never omitted in Latin as it is in English. Thus the boy I saw must be puer quem vidī.
- 6. The Relative is used freely in Latin, particularly at the beginning of a sentence, where in English we employ a demonstrative; as,—

quō factum est, by this it happened; quae cum ita sint, since this is so; quibus rēbus cognitīs, when these things became known.

- 7. The Relative introducing a subordinate clause may belong grammatically to a clause which is subordinate to the one it introduces; as,—
- numquam dīgnē satis laudārī philosophia poterit, cui quī pāreat, omne tempus aetātis sine molestiā possit dēgere, philosophy can never be praised enough, since he who obeys her can pass all his life without annoyance (lit. he who obeys which, etc.).

Here cui introduces the subordinate clause possit and connects it with philosophia; but cui is governed by pareat, which is subordinate to possit.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

252. 1. Quis, any one, is the weakest of the Indefinites, and stands usually in combination with sī, nisi, nē, num; as.—

sī quis putat, if any one thinks.

2. Aliquis (adj. aliquī) is more definite than quis, and corresponds usually to the English some one, somebody, some; as,—

nunc aliquis dicat mihi, now let somebody tell me; utinam modo agătur aliquid, oh that something may be done.

- 3. Quīdam, a certain one, is still more definite than aliquis; as,—homō quīdam, a certain man (i.e. one whom I have in mind).
 - a. Quidam (with or without quasi, as if) is sometimes used in the sense: a sort of, kind of; as,—

quaedam cognātio, a sort of relationship; mors est quasi quaedam migrātio, death is a kind of transfer, as it were. 4. Quisquam, any one, any one whoever (more general than quis), and its corresponding adjective üllus, any, occur mostly in negative and conditional sentences, in interrogative sentences implying a negative, and in clauses of comparison; as,—

jūstitia numquam nocet cuiquam, justice never harms anybody; sī quisquam, Catō sapiēns fuit, if anybody was ever wise, Cato was; potestne quisquam sine perturbātione animī īrāscī, can anybody be angry without excitement?

sī ūllō modō fierī potest, if it can be done in any way; taetrior hīc tyrannus fuit quam quisquam superiōrum, he was a viler tyrant than any of his predecessors.

- 5. Quisque, each one, is used especially under the following circumstances:
 - a) In connection with suus. See § 244, 4, a.
 - b) In connection with a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun;
 as, —

quod cuique obtigit, id teneat, what falls to each, that let him hold.

- c) In connection with superlatives; as,—
 optimus quisque, all the best (lit. each best one).
- d) With ordinal numerals; as,—
 quīntō quōque annō, every four years (lit. each fifth year).
- 6. Nomo, no one, in addition to its other uses, stands regularly with adjectives used substantively; as,—

nēmō mortālis, no mortal; nēmō Rōmānus, no Roman.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

253. 1. Alius, another, and alter, the other, are often used correlatively; as,—

aliud loquitur, aliud sentit, he says one thing, he thinks another; alii resistunt, alii fugiunt, some resist, others flee;

alter exercitum perdidit, alter vēndidit, one ruined the army, the other sold it;

alterī sē in montem recēpērunt, alterī ad impedīmenta sē contulērunt, the one party retreated to the mountain, the others betook themselves to the baggage. 2. Where the English says one does one thing, another another, the Latin uses a more condensed form of statement; as,—

alius aliud amat, one likes one thing, another another; aliud aliīs placet, one thing pleases some, another others.

- a. So sometimes with adverbs; as,—
 alii aliö fugiunt, some flee in one direction, others in another.
- 3. The Latin also expresses the notion 'each other' by means of alius repeated; as,—

Galli alius alium cohortăti sunt, the Gauls encouraged each other.

- 4. Cēterī means the rest, all the others; as,—
 cēterīs praestāre, to be superior to all the others.
- 5. Reliqui means the others in the sense of the rest, those remaining,—hence is the regular word with numerals; as,—
 reliqui sex, the six others.
- 6. Nescio quis forms a compound indefinite pronoun with the force of some one or other; as,—

causidicus nescio quis, some pettifogger or other; mīsit nescio quem, he sent some one or other; nescio quō pactō, somehow or other.

CHAPTER V. — Syntax of Verbs.

AGREEMENT.

With One Subject.

254. I. Agreement in Number and Person. A Finite Verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person; as,—

võs vidētis, you see; pater fīliōs Instituit, the father trains his sons.

2. Agreement in Gender. In the compound forms of the verb the participle regularly agrees with its subject in gender; as,—

sēditio repressa est, the mutiny was checked.

- 3. But when a predicate noun is of different gender or number from its subject, the verb usually agrees with its nearest substantive; as,—
- Tarquiniī māterna patria erat, Tarquinii was his native country on his mother's side;
- non omnis error stultitia est dicenda, not every error is to be called folly.
 - a. Less frequently the verb agrees with an appositive; as,—
 Corioli, oppidum Volscōrum, captum est, Corioli, a town of the Volsci, was captured.
- 4. Construction according to Sense. Sometimes the verb agrees with its subject according to sense instead of strict grammatical form. Thus:—
 - a) In Number; as,—
 multitūdō hominum convēnerant, a crowd of men had gathered.
 - b) In Gender; as,—
 duo mīlia crucibus adfīxī sunt, two thousand (men) were
 crucified.

With Two or More Subjects.

255. I. Agreement in Number. With two or more subjects the verb is regularly plural; as,—

pater et filius mortui sunt, the father and son died.

- 2. But sometimes the verb agrees with the nearest subject; viz., -
 - a) When the verb precedes both subjects or stands between them; as,—

mortuus est pater et filius; pater mortuus est et filius.

- b) When the subjects are connected by aut; aut . . . aut; vel . . . vel; neque . . . neque; as, neque pater neque filius mortuus est, neither father nor son died.
- 3. When the different subjects are felt together as constituting a whole, the singular is used; as,—
- temeritās ignorātioque vitiosa est, rashness and ignorance are bad.
 - a. This is regularly the case in senatus populusque Romanus.

- 4. Agreement in Person. With subjects of different persons the verb always takes the *first* person rather than the *second*, and the *second* rather than the *third*; as,—
- sī tū et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicerō valēmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.
- 5. Agreement in Gender. With subjects of different genders the participle in the compound tenses follows the same principles as laid down for predicate adjectives. See § 235, B, 2.

VOICES.

- 256. 1. The Passive Voice sometimes retains traces of its original middle or reflexive meaning; as,—
- ego non patiar eum defendi, I shall not allow him to defend himself.
- 2. In imitation of Greek usage many perfect passive participles are used by the poets as indirect middles, *i.e.* the subject is viewed as acting not upon himself, but as doing something *in his own interest*; as, vēlātus tempora, having veiled his temples.
 - a. Occasionally finite forms of the verb are thus used; as,—tunicā inducitur artūs, he covers his limbs with a tunic.
 - 3. Intransitive Verbs may be used impersonally in the passive; as,—
 curritur, people run (lit. it is run);
 ventum est, he (they, etc.) came (lit. it was come).

TENSES.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE.

- 257. 1. The Latin tenses express two distinct notions:
 - a) The period of time to which the action belongs: Present, Past, or Future.
 - b) The kind of action: Undefined, Going on, or Completed.

The Latin with its six tenses is able to express each of the three kinds of action for each of the three periods of time (making practically nine

tenses). It does this by employing certain tenses in more than one way, as may be seen by the following table:—

		PERIOD OF TIME.		
		PRESENT.	Past.	FUTURB.
KIND OF ACTION.	Undefined.	Present: scribo, I write.	Historical Perfect: scripsi, I wrote.	Future: scrlbam, / shall write.
	GOING ON.	Present: scrībō, I am writing.	Imperfect: scribēbam, I was writing.	Future: scribam, I shall be writing.
	COMPLETED.	Present Perfect: scripsi, I have written.	Pluperfect: scripseram, I had written.	Future Perfect: scripsero, 1 shall have writ- ten.

2. It will be seen that the Present may express Undefined action or action Going on; so also the Future. The Perfect likewise has a double use, according as it denotes action Completed in present time (Present Perfect) or Undefined action belonging to past time (Historical Perfect).

Principal and Historical Tenses.

258. Tenses which denote Present or Future time are called Principal Tenses; those which denote Past time are called Historical.

The Principal Tenses of the Indicative are: Present, Future, Present Perfect, Future Perfect.

The Historical Tenses are: Imperfect, Historical Perfect, Pluperfect.

Present Indicative.

- 259. Besides the two uses indicated in the table, the Present Indicative presents the following peculiarities:—
- 1. It is used to denote a general truth, i.e. something true not merely in the present but at all times ('Gnomic Present'); as,—
- virtus conciliat amīcitiās et conservat, virtue establishes ties of friendship and maintains them (i.e. always does so).

- It is used of an attempted action ('Conative Present'); as,—
 dum vitant vitia, in contraria current, while they try to avoid (vitant) vices, they rush into opposite ones.
- 3. In lively narration the Present is often used of a past action ('Historical Present'); as,—
- Caesar Aedu s obsides imperat, Caesar demanded hostages of the Aedui (lit. demands).
- 4. In combination with jam, jam diff, jam pridem, and similar words, the Present is frequently used of an action originating in the past and continuing in the present; as,—
- jam diū cupiō tē vīsere, I have long been desiring to visit you (i.e. I desire and have long desired).

Imperfect Indicative.

260. 1. The Imperfect primarily denotes action going on in past time; as,—

librum legēbam, I was reading a book.

- a. This force makes the Imperfect especially adapted to serve as the tense of description (as opposed to mere narration).
- 2. From the notion of action going on, there easily develops the notion of repeated or customary action; as,—

lēgātos interrogābat, he kept asking the envoys; puer C. Duīlium vidēbam, as a boy I often used to see Gaius Duilius.

- 3. Like the Present, the Imperfect often denotes an attempted action ('Conative Imperfect'); as,—
- hostës noströs inträ münītiönēs progredī prohibēbant, the enemy tried to prevent (prohibēbant) our men from advancing within the fortifications.
- 4. The Imperfect, with jam, jam diū, jam dūdum, etc., is sometimes used of a past action which had been continuing for some time; as,—
- domicilium Romae multos jam annos habebat, he had had his residence at Rome for many years (i.e. he had it at this time and had long had it).

Future Indicative.

- **261.** I. The two regular uses of the Future have been given above in the Table (p. 168).
- 2. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future than is the English. We say: 'If he comes, I shall be glad,' where we really mean: 'If he shall come,' etc. In such cases the Latin rarely admits the Present, but generally employs the Future.
 - 3. Sometimes the Future has Imperative force; as, dīcēs, say!

Perfect Indicative.

262. A. PRESENT PERFECT. Several Present Perfects denote the state resulting from a completed act, and so seem equivalent to the Present; as,—

novī cognovī I know (lit. I have become acquainted with); consuevī, I am wont (lit. I have become accustomed).

- B. HISTORICAL PERFECT. The Historical Perfect is primarily the tense of narration (as opposed to the Imperfect, the tense of description); as,—
- Rēgulus in senātum vēnit, mandāta exposuit, reddī captīvos negāvit esse ūtile, Regulus came into the Senate, set forth his commission, said it was useless for captives to be returned.
- r. Occasionally the Historical Perfect is used of a general truth ('Gnomic Perfect').

Pluperfect Indicative.

- 263. The Latin Pluperfect, like the English Past Perfect, denotes an act completed in the past; as,—
- Caesar Rhēnum trānsīre dēcrēverat, sed nāvēs deerant, Caesar had decided to cross the Rhine, but had no boats.

Future Perfect Indicative.

- 264. The Future Perfect denotes an action completed in future time. Thus:—
- scrībam epistulam, cum redieris, I will write the letter when you have returned (lit. when you shall have returned).
 - a. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future Perfect than the English, which commonly employs the Present Perfect instead of the Future Perfect.

Epistolary Tenses.

- **265.** In letters the writer often uses tenses which are not appropriate at the time of writing, but which will be so at the time when his letter is received; he thus employs the Imperfect and the Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Present Perfect; as,—
- nihil habēbam quod scrīberem, neque enim novī quidquam audieram et ad tuās omnēs epistulās jam rescrīpseram, I have nothing to write, for I have heard no news and have already answered all your letters.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

- 266. A. In Independent Sentences. See §§ 272-280.
- B. In Dependent Sentences. In dependent sentences the tenses of the subjunctive usually conform to the so-called

Sequence of Tenses.

- 267. I. In the Subjunctive the Present and Perfect are Principal tenses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, Historical.
- 2. By the Sequence of Tenses Principal tenses are followed by Principal, Historical by Historical. Thus:—

PRINCIPAL SEQUENCE, -

videō quid faciās, I see what you are doing. vidēbō quid faciās, I shall see what you are doing. vīderō quid faciās, I shall have seen what you are doing. videō quid fēceris, I see what you have done. vidēbō quid fēceris, I shall see what you have done. vīderō quid fēceris, I shall have seen what you have done.

HISTORICAL SEQUENCE, -

vidēbam quid facerēs, I saw what you were doing.
vīdī quid facerēs, I saw what you were doing.
vīderam quid facerēs, I had seen what you were doing.
vidēbam quid fēcissēs, I saw what you had done.
vīdī quid fēcissēs, I saw what you had done.
vīderam quid fēcissēs, I had seen what you had done.

3. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive denote incomplete action, the Perfect and Pluperfect completed action, exactly as in the Indicative.

Peculiarities of Sequence.

- 268. 1. The Perfect Indicative is usually an historical tense (even when translated in English as a Present Perfect), and so is followed by the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive; as,—
- dēmonstrāvī quārē ad causam accēderem, I have shown why I took the case (lit. I showed why, etc.).
- 2. A dependent Perfect Infinitive is treated as an historical tense wherever, if resolved into an equivalent Indicative, it would be historical; as,—
- videor ostendisse quales del essent, I seem to have shown of what nature the gods are (ostendisse here corresponds to an Indicative, ostendi, I showed).
- 3. The Historical Present is sometimes regarded as a principal tense, sometimes as historical. Thus:—
- Sulla suos hortatur ut forti animo sint, Sulla exhorts his soldiers to be stout-hearted;
- Gallos hortatur ut arma caperent, he exhorted the Gauls to take arms.
- 4. Conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type are not affected by the principles for the Sequence of Tenses; as,—
- honestum täle est ut vel sī ignörārent id hominēs suā tamen pulchritūdine laudābile esset, virtue is such a thing that even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be worthy of praise for its own loveliness.
- 5. In conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type the Imperfect Subjunctive is usually treated as an Historical tense; as,—
- sī sōlōs eōs dīcerēs miserōs, quibus moriendum esset, nēminem tū quidem eōrum quī vīverent exciperēs, if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one of those who live.
- 6. In clauses of Result and some others, the Perfect Subjunctive is sometimes used as an historical tense. Thus:—
- rex tantum motus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem judicarit, the king was so much moved that he adjudged Tissaphernes an enemy.

This construction is rare in Cicero, but frequent in Nepos and subsequent historians. The Perfect Subjunctive in this use represents a result simply as a fact without reference to the continuance of the act, and therefore corresponds to an Historical Perfect Indicative of direct statement. Thus, jūdicārit in the above example corresponds to a jūdicārit, he adjudged. To denote a result as something continuous, all writers use the Imperfect Subjunctive after historical tenses.

- 7. Sometimes perspicuity demands that the ordinary principles of Sequence be abandoned altogether. Thus:
 - a) We may have the Present or Perfect Subjunctive after an historical tense; as,—
 - Verres Siciliam ita perdidit ut ea restituī non possit, Verres so ruined Sicily that it cannot be restored (Direct statement; non potest restitui);
 - ārdēbat Hortēnsius dīcendī cupiditāte sīc, ut in nūllō flāgrantius studium vīderim, Hortensius burned so with eagerness to speak that I have seen in no one a greater desire (Direct statement: in nūllō vīdī, I have seen in no one).

NOTE. — This usage is different from that cited under 6. Here, by neglect of Sequence, the Perfect is used as a principal tense; there the Perfect was used as an historical tense.

- We may have a principal tense followed by the Perfect Subjunctive used historically; as,
 - nesció quid causae fuerit cur nullas ad me litteras dares, I do not know what reason there was why you did not send me a letter.

Here fuerit is historical, as is shown by the following Imperfect Subjunctive.

Method of expressing Future Time in the Subjunctive.

- 269. The Future and Future Perfect which are lacking to the Latin Subjunctive are supplied in subordinate clauses as follows:—
 - a) The Future is supplied by the Present after principal tenses, by the Imperfect after historical tenses.
 - b) The Future Perfect is supplied by the Perfect after principal tenses, by the Pluperfect after historical tenses.

This is especially frequent when the context clearly shows, by the presence of a future tense in the main clause, that the reference is to future time. Thus:—

- Galli pollicentur se factūros, quae Caesar imperet, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall order;
- Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperāret, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should order;
- Gallī pollicentur sē factūrēs quae Caesar imperāverit, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall have ordered;
- Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāvisset, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should have ordered.
- 2. Even where the context does not contain a Future tense in the main clause, Future time is often expressed in the subordinate clauses by the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Thus:—

timeō nē veniat, I am afraid he will come;

- Caesar exspectabat quid consilii hostes caperent, Caesar was waiting to see what plan the enemy would adopt.
- 3. Where greater definiteness is necessary the periphrastic forms in -ūrus sim and -ūrus essem are employed, especially in clauses of Result, Indirect Questions, and after non dubito quīn; as,—
- non dubito quin pater venturus sit, I do not doubt that my father will come;
- non dubitabam quin pater venturus esset, I did not doubt that my father would come.
- 4. Where the verb has no Future Active Participle or where it stands in the passive voice, its Future character may be indicated by the use of the particles mox, brevi, statim, etc., in connection with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive; as,—
- non dubito quin to mox hujus rel paeniteat, I do not doubt that you will soon repent of this thing;
- nön dubitäbam quin haec res brevi conficeretur, I did not doubt that this thing would soon be finished.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

- 270. I. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb on which they depend. Thus:
 - a) The Present Infinitive represents an act as contemporaneous with the time of the verb on which it depends; as,—
 vidētur honorēs adsequī, he seems to be gaining honors;
 vidēbātur honorēs adsequī, he seemed to be gaining honors.

- b) The Perfect Infinitive represents an act as *prior to* the time of the verb on which it depends; as,
 - vidētur honorēs adsecūtus esse, he seems to have gained honors;
 - visus est honores adsecutus esse, he seemed to have gained honors.
- c) The Future Infinitive represents an act as subsequent to that of the verb on which it depends; as,
 - vidētur honorēs adsecūtūrus esse, he seems about to gain honors;
 - vīsus est honorēs adsecūtūrus esse, he seemed about to gain honors.
- 2. Where the English says 'ought to have done,' 'might have done,' etc., the Latin uses debui, oportuit, potui, with the Present Infinitive; as,—

debuit dicere, he ought to have said (lit. owed it to say); oportuit venire, he ought to have come; potuit videre, he might have seen.

- a. Oportuit, volō, nōlō (and in poetry some other verbs), may take a
 Perfect Infinitive instead of the Present: as.
 - hoc jam pridem factum esse oportuit, this ought long ago to have been done.
- 3. PERIPHRASTIC FUTURE INFINITIVE. Verbs that have no Participial Stem express the Future Infinitive Active and Passive by fore ut or futurum esse ut, with the Subjunctive; as,—
- spērō fore ut tē paeniteat levitātis, I hope you will repent of your fickleness (lit. hope it will happen that you repent);
- spērō futūrum esse ut hostēs arceantur, I hope that the enemy will be kept off.
 - a. The Periphrastic Future Infinitive is often used, especially in the Passive, even in case of verbs which have the Participial Stem; as, spērō fore ut hostēs vincantur, I hope the enemy will be conquered.
- 4. Passives and Deponents sometimes form a Future Perfect Infinitive with fore; as,—
- spērō epistulam scrīptam fore, I hope the letter will have been written;
- putō mē omnia adeptum fore, I think that I shall have gained everything.

THE MOODS.

MOODS IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

The Indicative in Independent Sentences.

- 271. The Indicative is used for the statement of facts, the supposition of facts, or inquiry after facts.
 - 1. Note the following idiomatic uses:
 - a) With possum; as,—
 possum multa dicere, I might say much;
 poteram multa dicere, I might have said much (§ 270, 2).
 - b) In such expressions as longum est, aequum est, melius est, difficile est, ūtilius est, and some others; as,—longum est ea dīcere, it would be tedious to tell that; difficile est omnia persequī, it would be difficult to enumerate everything.

The Subjunctive in Independent Sentences.

- 272. The Subjunctive is used in Independent Sentences to express something—
 - I. As willed Volitive Subjunctive;
 - 2. As desired Optative Subjunctive;
 - 3. Conceived of as possible Potential Subjunctive.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

273. The Volitive Subjunctive represents the action as willed. It always implies authority on the part of the speaker, and has the following varieties:—

A. HORTATORY SUBJUNCTIVE.

274. The Hortatory Subjunctive expresses an exhortation. This use is confined to the first person plural, of the Present. The negative is no. Thus:—

eāmus, let us go; amēmus patriam, let us love our country; nē dēspērēmus, let us not despair.

B. JUSSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

- 275. The Jussive Subjunctive expresses a command. The Jussive stands regularly in the Present Tense, and is used—
- Most frequently in the third singular and third plural; as,—dīcat, let him tell;
 dīcant, let them tell;
 impiī nē plācāre audeant deos, let not the wicked dare to appease the gods.
 - Less frequently in the second person; as, —
 istō bonō ūtāre, use that advantage;
 modestē vīvās, live temperately.

C. PROHIBITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

276. The Subjunctive is used in the second person singular and plural, with nē, to express a prohibition. As regards the use of tenses, the Perfect seems to be used where there is special excitement or emotion, otherwise the Present; as,—

nē repūgnētis, *do not resist!* tū vērō istam nē relīqueris, DON'T YOU LEAVE HER!

- a. Neither of these constructions is frequent in classical prose.
- b. The distinction sometimes drawn between the Present and the Perfect in this construction, restricting the former to general prohibitions, and the latter to those addressed to a definite second person, will not hold.
- c. A commoner method of expressing a prohibition is by the use of noll (nollte) with a following infinitive, or by cave ne with the Subjunctive; as,—

noll hoc facere, don't do this (lit. be unwilling to do)! nollte mentiri, do not lie!

cave ne haec facias, do not do this (lit. take care lest you do).

D. DELIBERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

277. The Deliberative Subjunctive is used in questions and exclamations implying doubt or indignation. The

Present is used referring to present time, the Imperfect referring to past. The negative is non. Thus:—

quid faciam, what shall I do?
ego redeam, shall I go back?
quid facerem, what was I to do?
hunc ego non diligam, shall I not cherish this man?

a. These Deliberative Questions are usually purely Rhetorical in character, and do not expect an answer.

E. CONCESSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

278. The Subjunctive is used to indicate something as granted or conceded for the sake of argument. The Present is used for present time, the Perfect regularly for past. The negative is nē. Thus:—

sit hoc vorum, granting that this is true (lit. let this be true);
no sit summum malum dolor, malum certo est, granting that pain
is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil;

fuerit malus cīvis aliīs, tibi quandō esse coepit, granting that he was a bad citizen to others, when did he begin to be so toward you?

OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

- 279. The Optative Subjunctive occurs in expressions of wishing. The negative is regularly nē. The use of tenses is as follows:—
- 1. The Present Tense, often accompanied by utinam, is used where the wish is conceived of as possible.

dī istaec prohibeant, may the gods prevent that! falsus utinam vātēs sim, oh that I may be a false prophet! nē veniant, may they not come!

2. The Imperfect expresses, in the form of a wish, the regret that something is not so now; the Pluperfect that something was not so in the past. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are regularly accompanied by utinam; as,—

utinam istud ex animō dīcerēs, would that you were saying that in earnest, (i.e. I regret that you are not saying it in earnest);

Pēlīdēs utinam vītāsset Apollinis arcūs, would that Achilles had escaped the bow of Apollo;

utinam në natus essem, would that I had not been born.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

- **280.** The Potential Subjunctive expresses a possibility. The negative is non. The following uses are to be noted:—
- 1. The Potential Subjunctive may designate a mere objective possibility (English auxiliary may). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. The subject is generally an indefinite pronoun. Thus:—

dīcat aliquis, some one may say; dīxerit aliquis, some one may say.

- a. This construction is by no means frequent, and is confined mainly to a few phrases like those given as examples.
- 2. The Potential Subjunctive may represent something as contingent upon a condition expressed or understood (English auxiliary should, would). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—

fortunam citius reperias quam retineas, one would more quickly find

Fortune than keep it (i.e. if one should make the trial);

paene dicam, I should almost say (i.e. if I were to express an opinion);

crēdiderim, I should believe.

- a. Here belongs the use of velim, mālim, nōlim, as softened forms of statement for volō, mālō, nōlō. Thus:—
 velim mihi ignōscās, I wish you would forgive me;
 nōlim putēs mē jocārī, I don't want you to think I'm joking.
- b. When the condition is expressed, we get one of the regular types of Conditional Sentences (see § 303); as,—dies deficiat, sī coner enumerare causas, time would fail if I should attempt to enumerate the reasons.
- 3. In the Imperfect the Potential occurs in the second person singular (with indefinite force; § 356, 3) of a few verbs, chiefly the following:—

 orēderēs, one might have believed;

vidērēs, cernerēs, one might have seen, perceived; putārēs, one might have thought.

4. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of the contrary-to-fact type (see § 304) are also Potential in character. By omission of the Protasis such an Apodosis sometimes stands alone, particularly vellem, nöllem, mällem; as,—

vellem id quidem, I would wish that (i.e. were I bold enough).

The Imperative.

281. The Imperative is used in commands, admonitions, and entreaties (negative neg); as,—

ēgredere ex urbe, depart from the city;
mihi ignōsce, pardon me;
valē, farewell.

- 1. The Present is the tense of the *Imperative* most commonly used, but the Future is employed
 - a) Where there is a distinct reference to future time, especially in the apodosis of conditional sentences; as,
 - rem vobīs proponam; vos eam penditote, I will lay the matter before you; do you (then) consider it;
 - sī bene disputābit, tribuitō litterīs Graeoīs, if he shall speak well, attribute it to Greek literature.
 - b) In laws, treaties, wills, maxims, etc.; as,
 - consules summum jus habento, the consuls shall have supreme power;
 - hominem mortuom in urbe në sepelîtö, no one shall bury a dead body in the city;
 - amīcitia rēgī Antiochō cum populō Rōmānō hīs lēgibus et condiciōnibus estō, let there be peace between Antiochus and the Roman people on the following terms and conditions.
 - quartae esto partis Marcus heres, let Marcus be heir to a fourth (of the property);
 - ignöscitö saepe alterI, numquam tibi, forgive your neighbor often, yourself never.
- 2. Except with the Future Imperative the negative is not used in classical prose. Prohibitions are regularly expressed in other ways. See \S 276, c.
- 3. Questions in the Indicative introduced by quin (why not?) are often equivalent to an Imperative or to the Hortatory Subjunctive; as,—quin abis, go away! (lit. why don't you go away?)
- quin voices?)
- quin equos conscendimus, let us mount our horses (lit. why do we not mount our horses?)

MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Clauses of Purpose.

- 282. I. Clauses of Purpose are introduced most commonly by ut (utī), quō (that, in order that), nē (in order that not, lest), and stand in the Subjunctive; as,—
- edimus, ut vīvāmus, we eat that we may live.
- adjūtā mē quō hōc siat facilius, help me, in order that this may be done more easily.
- portās clausit, ne quam oppidānī injūriam acciperent, he closed the gates, lest the townspeople should receive any injury.
 - a. Quō, as a rule, is employed only when the purpose clause contains a comparative or a comparative idea. Occasional exceptions occur; as,
 - haec faciunt quo Chremetem absterreant, they are doing this in order to frighten Chremes.
 - b. Ut nē is sometimes found, as more emphatic than nē.
 Thus:
 - ut ne quid neglegenter agamus, in order that we may not do anything carelessly.
 - c. Ut non (not no) is used where the negation belongs to some single word, instead of to the purpose clause as a whole. Thus:
 - ut non ejectus ad alienos, sed invitatus ad tuos videare, that you may seem not driven out among strangers, but invited to your own friends.
 - d. To say 'and that not' or 'or that not,' the Latin regularly uses neve (neu); as,
 - ut earum rerum vis minueretur, neu ponti nocerent, that the violence of these things might be lessened, and that they might not harm the bridge;
 - profügit, në caperëtur nëve interficerëtur, he fled, that he might not be captured or killed.
 - e. But neque (for nēve) is sometimes used in the second clause when ut stands in the first, and, after the Augustan era, even when the first clause is introduced by nē.

- 2. A Relative Pronoun (quī) or Adverb (ubi, unde, quō) is frequently used to introduce a Purpose Clause; as,—
- Helvētiī lēgātōs mittunt, quī dīcerent, the Helvetii sent envoys to say (lit. who should say);
- haec habul, de senectute quae dicerem, I had these things to say about old age;
- non habebat quo fugeret, he had no place to which to flee (lit. whither he might flee).
 - a. Qui in such clauses is equivalent to ut is, ut ego, etc.; ubi to ut ibi; unde to ut inde; quō to ut eō.
- 3. Relative clauses of purpose follow **dīgnus**, **indīgnus**, and **idōneus**; as,—
- idoneus fuit nemo quem imitarere, there was no one suitable for you to imitate (cf. nemo fuit quem imitarere, there was no one to imitate);
- dīgnus est quī aliquando imperet, he is worthy to rule sometime.
- 4. Purpose clauses often depend upon something to be supplied from the context instead of upon the principal verb of their own sentences; as,—
- ut haec omnia omittam, abiimus, to pass over all this (I will say that) we departed.

Clauses of Characteristic.

- 283. I. A relative clause used to express an essential quality or characteristic of an antecedent not otherwise defined is called a Clause of Characteristic, and stands in the Subjunctive; as,—
- multa sunt, quae mentem acuant, there are many things which sharpen the wits.
- Clauses of Characteristic are opposed to those relative clauses which are used merely to state or assume some fact about an antecedent already defined, and which therefore take the Indicative; as,—
- Catō, senex jūcundus, quī Sapiēns appellātus est, Cato, a delightful old man, who was called 'The Wise.'
- The Clause of Characteristic implies 'a man of the sort that does something'; the Indicative relative clause implies 'a man who actually does something.'

- 2. Clauses of Characteristic are used especially after such expressions as, est quī; sunt quī; nēmō est quī; nūllus est quī; ūnus est quī; solus est quī; quis est quī; is quī; etc. Thus:—
- sunt qui dicant, there are (some) who say;
- nēmō est quī putet, there is nobody who thinks;
- sapientia est una quae maestitiam pellat, philosophy is the only thing that drives away sorrow;
- quae cīvitās est quae non ēvertī possit, what state is there that cannot be overthrown?
- non is sum qui improbos laudem, I am not the sort of man that praises the wicked.
 - a. Sometimes (very rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the clause of characteristic is used after comparatives; as,
 - non longius hostes aberant quam quo telum adigi posset, the enemy were not too far off for a dart to reach them (lit. further off than [a point] to which a dart could be cast).
- 3. The Clause of Characteristic often conveys an accessory notion of cause (since) or opposition (although). Thus:—
 - a) Cause. The relative is then frequently accompanied by ut, quippe, utpote; as,
 - ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtūtis Homērum praeconem invēneris, O fortunate man, since you have found a Homer as the herald of your valor;
 - ut quī optimō jūre eam provinciam obtinuerit, since he held that province by excellent right.
 - b) Opposition:
 - egomet quī sērō Graecās litterās attigissem, tamen complūrēs diēs Athēnīs commorātus sum, I, although I had taken up Greek literature late in life, nevertheless tarried several days at Athens.
- 4. Clauses of Characteristic may also be introduced by quin = qui (quae, quod) non; as,—
- nēmō est quīn saepe audierit, there is no one who has not often heard:
- nēmō fuit mīlitum quīn vulnerārētur, there was no one of the soldiers who was not wounded.
- 5. Under Clauses of Characteristic belong also phrases of the type: quod sciam, so far as I know; quod audierim, so far as I have heard.

Clauses of Result.

- 284. I. Clauses of Result are usually introduced by ut (that, so that), negative ut non (so that not), and take the Subjunctive. The main clause often contains tantus, talis, tot, is (= talis), tam, or some similar word. Thus:—
- quis tam dēmēns est ut suā voluntāte maereat, who is so senseless as to mourn of his own volition?
- Siciliam ita vāstāvit ut restituī in antīquum statum non possit, he has so ravaged Sicily that it cannot be restored to its former condition;
- mons altissimus impendebat, ut facile perpauci prohibère possent, a very high mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily stop them.
- 2. A Result Clause is often introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb, quī (= ut is), quō (= ut eō), etc.; as,—
- nēmō est tam senex quī sē annum nōn putet posse vīvere, nobody is so old as not to think he will live a year;
- habētis eum consulem qui parēre vestrīs decrētīs non dubitet, you have a consul such as does not hesitate to obey your decrees.
 - a. These relative clauses of result are a development of the Clause of Characteristic, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the two constructions. It is best to class the relative clause as one of Characteristic, unless the result idea is clear and unmistakable.
- 3. Result clauses may also be introduced by quīn = ut non; as,—
- nihil tam difficile est quIn quaerendo invēstīgārī possit, nothing is so difficult that it cannot be discovered by searching.
- nemo est tam fortis quin rei novitate perturbetur, no one is so steadfast as not to be thrown into confusion by a strange occurrence.

Note phrases of the type: -

fierī non potest quīn scrībam, facere non possum quīn scrībam,

- 4. Note the use of quam ut (sometimes quam alone) to denote Result after comparatives; as, —
- urbs erat munitior quam ut primo impetu capi posset, the city was too strongly fortified to be taken at the first attack (lit. more strongly fortified than [so] that it could be taken, etc).

Causal Clauses.

- 285. Causal clauses are introduced chiefly by the following particles:—
 - 1. Quod, quia, quoniam.
 - 2. Cum.
 - 3. Quando.
 - 286. The use of moods is as follows: —
- I. Quod, quia, quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is that of the writer or speaker; they take the Subjunctive when the reason is viewed as that of another. Thus:—
- Parthōs timeō quod diffīdō cōpils nostrīs, I fear the Parthians, because I distrust our troops.
- Themistocles, quia non tutus erat, Corcyram demigravit, Themistocles, since he was not safe, moved to Corcyra.
- neque mē vīxisse paenitet, quoniam bene vīxī, I do not regret having lived, since I have lived well.
- Socrates accusatus est quod corrumperet juventutem, Socrates was arraigned on the ground that he was corrupting the young. (Here the reason is not that of the writer but of the accuser. Hence the Subjunctive.)
- Aeduī Caesarī grātiās ēgērunt, quod sē perīculō līberāvisset, the Aedui thanked Caesar because he had delivered them from danger. (The reason of the Aedui.)
- quoniam Miltiades dioere non posset, verba pro eo fecit Tisagoras, since Miltiades could not speak, Tisagoras spoke for him. (The reason of Tisagoras.)
- noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs, quod somnum capere non posset, Themistocles used to walk at night because (as he said) he couldn't sleep.
 - a. Verbs of thinking and saying often stand in the Subjunctive in causal clauses as though the act of thinking or saying, and not the contents of the thought or language, constituted the reason. Thus:—
 - Bellovacī suum numerum non complēvērunt, quod sē suo nomine cum Romānīs bellum gestūros dioerent, the Bellovaci did not furnish their complement, be-

- cause they said they were going to wage war with the Romans on their own account.
- b Non quod, non quo (by attraction for non eo quod), non quia, not that, not because; and non quod non, non quo non, non quin, not that . . . not; not because . . . not; not but what, are usually employed merely to introduce a hypothetical reason, and hence take the Subjunctive; as,
 - id fēcī, non quod vos hanc dēfēnsionem dēsīderāre arbitrārer, sed ut omnēs intellegerent, this I did, not because I thought you needed this defense, but that all might perceive;
 - Crassō commendătionem non sum pollicitus, non quin eam valituram apud te arbitrarer, sed egere mihi commendatione non videbatur, I did not promise a recommendation to Crassus, not that I did not think it would have weight with you, but because he did not seem to me to need recommendation.
- c. But clauses introduced by non quod, non quia take the Indicative if they state a fact, even though that fact is denied to be the reason for something; as,
 - hoc ita sentio, non quia sum ipse augur, sed quia sic existimare nos est necesse, this I think, not because I am myself an augur (which I really am), but because it is necessary for us to think so.
- Cum causal regularly takes the Subjunctive; as,—
 quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
 cum sīs mortālis, quae mortālia sunt, cūrā, since you are mortal,
 care for what is mortal.
 - a. Note the phrase cum praesertim (praesertim cum), especially since; as,—
 - Aeduōs accūsat, praesertim cum eōrum precibus adductus bellum suscēperit, he blamed the Aedui, especially since he had undertaken the war at their entreaties.
- 3. Quando (less frequent than the other causal particles) governs the Indicative; as,—
- id omittö, quandō vöbīs ita placet, I pass over that, since you so wish.

Temporal Clauses introduced by Postquam, Ut, Ubi, Simul ac, etc.

- 287. I. Postquam (posteāquam), after; ut, ubi, when; cum prīmum, simul, simul ac (simul atque), as soon as, when used to refer to a single occurrence regularly take the Perfect Indicative; as,—
- Epaminondas postquam audīvit vīcisse Boeotios, 'Satis' inquit 'vīxī,' Epaminondas, after he heard that the Boeotians had conquered, said, 'I have lived enough.'
- id ut audīvit, Corcyram dēmigrāvit, when he heard this, he moved to Corcyra;
- Caesar cum primum potuit, ad exercitum contendit, Caesar, as soon as he could, hurried to the army;
- ubi de Caesaris adventu certiores facti sunt, legatos ad eum mittunt, when they were informed of Caesar's arrival, they sent envoys to him.
 - a. The Historical Present may take the place of the Perfect in this construction.
- 2. To denote the repeated occurrence of an act, ut, ubi, simul atque, as often as, when following an historical tense, take the Pluperfect Indicative (compare §§ 288, 3; 302, 3); as,—
- ut quisque Verris animum offenderat, in lautumiäs statim coniciebātur, whenever anybody had offended Verres's feelings, he was forthwith put in the stone-quarry;
- hostes, ubi aliquos egredientes conspexerant, adoriebantur, whenever the enemy had seen any men disembarking, they attacked them.
 - a. In Livy and succeeding historians the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used to denote this repeated occurrence of an act ('Indefinite Frequency'); as,
 - id ubi dixisset, hastam mittebat, whenever he had said that, he hurled a spear.
- 3. Occasionally the above conjunctions are followed by the Pluperfect Indicative of a single occurrence. This is regularly the case with postquam in expressions denoting a definite interval of time (days, months, years, etc.), such as post tertium annum quam, tribus post annis quam. Thus:—

- paucīs post diēbus quam Lūcā discesserat, ad Sardiniam vēnit,
 a few days after he had departed from Luca he came to Sardinia:
- postquam occupătae Syrăcüsae erant, profectus est Carthaginem, after Syracuse had been seized, he set out for Carthage.
- 4. The Imperfect Indicative also sometimes occurs to denote a continued state; as,—
- postquam Romam adventabant, senatus consultus est, after they were on the march towards Rome, the Senate was consulted;
- postquam structi utrimque stabant, after they had been drawn up on both sides and were in position.
- 5. Rarely **postquam**, **posteāquam**, following the analogy of **cum**, take the Subjunctive, but only in the historical tenses; as,—
- posteaquam sumptuosa fieri funera coepissent, lege sublata sunt, after funerals had begun to be elaborate, they were done away with by law.

Temporal Clauses introduced by Cum.

- A. Cum referring to the Past.
- 288. I. Cum, when referring to the past, takes—
- A. The Indicative (Imperfect, Historical Perfect, or Pluperfect) to denote the point of time at which something occurs.
- B. The Subjunctive (Imperfect or Pluperfect) to denote the situation or circumstances under which something occurs.

Examples: —

INDICATIVE.

- an tum erās consul, cum in Palātio mea domus ārdēbat, or were you consul at the time when my house burned up on the Palatine?
- crēdo tum cum Sicilia florēbat opibus et copiīs māgna artificia fuisse in eā Insulā, I believe that at the time when Sicily was powerful in riches and resources there were great crafts in that island;
- eo tempore paruit cum parere necesse erat, he obeyed at the time when it was necessary to obey;
- 1115 die, cum est lata lex de me, on that day when the law concerning me was passed.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

- Lysander cum vellet Lycurgi leges commutare, prohibitus est, when Lysander desired to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented;
- Pythagoras cum in geometria quiddam novi invenisset, Müsis bovem immolasse dicitur, when Pythagoras had discovered something new in geometry, he is said to have sacrificed an ox to the Muses.
 - a. Note that the Indicative is much less frequent in such clauses than the Subjunctive, and is regularly confined to those cases where the main clause has tum, eō diē, eō annō, eō tempore or some similar correlative of the cum. Sometimes it depends entirely upon the point of view of the writer whether he shall employ the Indicative or Subjunctive.
- 2. When the logical order of the clauses is inverted, we find cum with the Perfect Indicative or Historical Present, in the sense of when, when suddenly. The main clause in such cases often has jam, vix, aegrē, nōndum; as,—
- jam Galli ex oppido fugere apparabant, cum matres familiae repente procurrerunt, the Gauls were already preparing to flee, when suddenly the matrons rushed forth (logically, the matrons rushed forth as the Gauls were preparing to flee);
- Trēvirī Labienum adorīrī parābant, cum duās legiones vēnisse cognoscunt, the Treviri were preparing to attack, when (suddenly) they learned that two legions had arrived.
- 3. To denote a recurring action in the past cum is followed by the Indicative, particularly of the Pluperfect (compare §§ 287, 2; 302, 3); as,—
- cum ad aliquod oppidum vēnerat, eādem lectīcā ad cubiculum dēferēbātur, whenever he had arrived at some town, he was (always) carried in the same litter to his room:
- cum equitatus noster se in agros ejecerat, essedarios ex silvis emittebat, whenever our cavalry had advanced into the fields, he would send his charioteers out from the woods.
 - a. Sometimes the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is thus used; as,—
 saepe cum aliquem videret minus bene vestitum, suum
 amiculum dedit, often, whenever he saw some one more poorly
 clothed, he gave him his own mantle:
 - cum procucurrissent, Numidae effugiebant, as often as they had advanced, the Numidians ran away.
 - This construction is frequent in Livy and subsequent historians.

- B. Cum referring to the Present or Future.
- 289. When cum refers to the Present or Future it regularly takes the Indicative; as,—
- tum tua rēs agitur, pariēs cum proximus ārdet, your own interests are at stake when your neighbor's house is burning; cum vidēbis, tum sciēs, when you see, then you will know.
 - a. The Indicative of the Present or Future may denote also a recurring action; as, stabilitäs amīcitiae confirmāri potest, cum homines cupidinibus imperābunt, firm friendship can be established whenever men shall control their desires.

C. OTHER USES OF Cum.

- 290. 1. Cum Explicative. Cum, with the Indicative, is sometimes used to indicate the identity of one act with another; as,—cum tacent, clāmant, their silence is a shout (lit. when they are silent, they shout).
- 2. Cum...tum. When cum...tum mean both...and, the cum-clause is in the Indicative; but when cum has the force of while, though, it may take the Subjunctive; as,—
- cum te semper dilexerim, tum tuis factis incensus sum, while I have always loved you, at the same time I am incensed at your conduct.

Clauses introduced by Antequam and Priusquam.

A. WITH THE INDICATIVE.

- 291. Antequam and priusquam (often written ante . . . quam, prius . . . quam) take the Indicative to denote an actual fact.
- Sometimes the Present or Future Perfect; as,—
 prius respondēs quam rogō, you answer before I ask;
 nihil contrā disputābō priusquam dīxerit, I will say nothing in opposition, before he speaks.
- Sometimes the Perfect, especially after negative clauses; as,—
 non prius jugulandī fīnis fuit, quam Sulla omnēs suos dīvitiīs
 explēvit, there was no end of murder until Sulla satisfied all
 his henchmen with wealth.

B. WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

- 292. Antequam and priusquam take the Subjunctive to denote an act as anticipated.
 - 1. Thus the Subjunctive may denote
 - a) An act in preparation for which the main act takes place; as, priusquam dīmicārent, foedus ictum est, i.e. in anticipation of the fight, a treaty was struck.

By an extension of this usage, the Subjunctive is sometimes used of general truths, where the anticipatory notion has faded out; as,—
tempestas minatur antequam surgat, the tempest threatens before it rises.

- b) An act anticipated and forestalled; as, priusquam tēlum adicī posset, omnis aciēs terga vertit, before a spear could be hurled, the whole army fled.
- c) An act anticipated and deprecated; as, animum omittunt priusquam loco demigrent, they die rather than quit their post.
- 2. After historical tenses the Imperfect Subjunctive is used, especially by post-Augustan writers, where the notion of anticipation has practically vanished; as,—
- sol antequam se abderet fugientem vidit Antonium, the sun before it set saw Antony fleeing.

Clauses introduced by Dum, Donec, Quoad.

- 293. I. Dum, while, regularly takes the Indicative of the Historical Present; as,—
- Alexander, dum inter prīmorēs pūgnat, sagittā ictus est, Alexander, while he was fighting in the van, was struck by an arrow;
- dum haec geruntur, in fines Venellorum pervenit, while these things were being done, he arrived in the territory of the Venelli.
- II. Dum, donec, and quoad, as long as, take the Indicative; as,—
- dum anima est, spēs est, as long as there is life, there is hope;
- Lacedaemoniorum gens fortis fuit, dum Lycurgī leges vigebant, the race of the Lacedaemonians was powerful, as long as the laws of Lycurgus were in force;
- Catō, quoad vīxit, virtūtum laude crēvit, Cato, as long as he lived, increased in the fame of his virtues.

III. Dum, donec, and quoad, until, take:-

- I. The Indicative, to denote an actual event; as,—donec rediit, fuit silentium, there was silence till he came; ferrum in corpore retinuit, quoad renuntiatum est Boeotios vicisse, he kept the iron in his body until word was brought that the Boeotians had conquered.
 - a. In Livy and subsequent historians dum and donec in this sense often take the Subjunctive instead of the Indicative; as,—trepidātionis aliquantum ēdēbant, donec timor quiētem fēcisset, they showed some trepidation, until fear produced quiet.
- 2. The Subjunctive, to denote anticipation or expectancy; as,—
- exspectavit Caesar dum naves convenirent, Caesar waited for the ships to assemble;

dum hostes veniant, morabor, I shall wait for the enemy to come.

Substantive Clauses.

- 294. A Substantive Clause is one which as a whole serves as the Subject or Object of a verb, or denotes some other case relation.
 - A. Substantive Clauses developed from the Volitive.
- 295. These are generally used as object-clauses, and occur with the following classes of verbs:—
- 1. With verbs signifying to admonish, request, command, urge, persuade, induce, 1 etc. (conjunctions ut, no); as,—
- orat. ne abeas, he begs that you will not go away;
- mīlitēs cohortātus est ut hostium impetum sustinērent, he exhorted his soldiers to withstand the attack of the enemy;
- Helvētiīs persuāsit ut exīrent, he persuaded the Helvetii to march forth.
 - a. Jubeo. command, order, regularly takes the Infinitive.

¹ Especially: moneō, admoneō; rogō, ōrō, petō, postulō, precor, flāgitō: mandō, imperō, praecipiō; suādeō, hortor, cohortor; persuādeō, impellō.

- 2. With verbs signifying to grant, concede, permit, allow, etc. (conjunction ut); as, —
- huic concedo ut ea praetereat, I allow him to pass that by (dependent form of the Jussive ea praetereat, let him pass that by!);
- consuli permissum est ut duas legiones scriberet, the consul was permitted to enroll two legions.
- 3. With verbs of hindering, preventing,² etc. (conjunctions nē, quōminus, quīn); as,—
- nē lūstrum perficeret, mors prohibuit, death prevented him from finishing the lustrum (dependent form after past tense of nē lūstrum perficiat, let him not finish, etc.);
- prohibuit quominus in finum corrent, he prevented them from coming together;
- neo, quin erumperet, prohiberi poterat, nor could he be prevented from rushing forth.
 - a. Quin is used only when the verb of hindering is accompanied by a negative, or stands in a question implying a negative; it is not necessarily used even then.

Clauses introduced by **quōminus** and **quin** are probably developed from Purpose Clauses.

- 4. With verbs of deciding, resolving, etc. (conjunctions ut, ne); as, —
- constitueram ut prīdiē Īdūs Aquīnī manērem, I had decided to remain at Aquinum on the 12th;
- decrevit senatus ut Opimius videret, the Senate decreed that Opimius should see to it;
- convenit ut unis castris miscerentur, it was agreed that they should be united in one camp.
 - 5. With verbs of striving,4 etc. (conjunctions ut, nē); as,—
- laborabat ut reliquas olivitates adjungeret, he was striving to join the remaining states to him;
- contendit ne ea enuntiarentur, he strove that those things should not be reported.
 - . a. Conor, try, always takes the Infinitive.

NOTE.—Verbs of all the above classes also admit the Infinitive, especially in poetry.

¹ Especially: permitto, concedo, non patior.

² Especially: prohibeō, impediō, dēterreō.

⁸ Especially: constituo, decerno, censeo, placuit, convenit, paciscor.

⁴ Especially: laboro, do operam, id ago, contendo, impetro.

6. With a few other expressions, such as necesse est, reliquum est, sequitur, licet, oportet; as,—

reliquum est ut doceam, it remains for me to show; licet redeās, you may return; oportet loquāmur, we must speak.

On licet and oportet without ut, see paragraph 8.

- 7. Here also belong phrases of the type: nulla causa est cur, quare, quin; non est cur, etc.; nihil est cur, etc.; as,—
- nulla causa est cur timeam, there is no reason why I should fear (originally Deliberative: why should I fear? There's no reason); non est quare timeam, there is no reason why I should fear; nihil est quin dicam, there is no reason why I should not say.
- 8. Many of the above classes of verbs at times take the simple Subjunctive without ut. In such cases we must not recognize any omission of ut, but simply an earlier form of expression which existed before the ut-clause arose. This is regularly the case with necesse est, licet, and oportet; see 6. Other examples are:—

eos hoc moneo desinant, I warn them to stop; huic imperat adeat cīvitātēs, he orders him to visit the states.

- B. Substantive Clauses developed from the Optative.
- 296. Here belong clauses:—
- With verbs of wishing, desiring, especially cupio, opto, volo, mālo (conjunctions ut, nē); as,—
- opto ut in hoc jūdicio nēmo improbus reperiātur, I hope that in this court no bad man may be found (here ut reperiātur represents a simple optative of direct statement, viz. reperiātur, may no bad man be found!);
- cupio në veniat, I desire that he may not come.
 - a. The simple Subjunctive (without ut) sometimes occurs with verbs of this class. (See § 295, 8.) Examples are: vellem scriberes, I could wish you were writing; vellem scripsisset, I could wish he had written.
- 2. With verbs of fearing (timeō, metuō, vereor). Here nē means that, lest, and ut means that not; as,—
- timeō nē veniat, I fear that he will come (originally: may he not come!

 I'm afraid [he will]);
- time out veniat, I fear that he will not come (originally: may he come:

 I'm afraid [he won't]).

- a. Nö non sometimes occurs instead of ut, especially where the verb of fearing has a negative, or where the writer desires to emphasize some particular word in the dependent clause; as,
 - non vereor ne hoc non flat, I am not afraid that this will not happen:
 - vereor në exercitum firmum habëre nën possit, I fear that he is unable (nën possit) to have a strong army.

C. Substantive Clauses of Result.

- 297. Substantive Clauses of Result (introduced by ut, ut non) are a development of pure Result clauses, and occur with the following classes of words:—
- 1. As object clauses after verbs of doing, accomplishing (especially facio, efficio, conficio). Thus:—
- gravitas morbī facit ut medicīnā egeāmus, the severity of disease makes us need medicine.
- 2. As the subject of several impersonal verbs, particularly fit, efficitur, accidit, evenit, contingit, accedit, fierī potest, fore, sequitur, relinquitur. Thus:—
- ex quō efficitur, ut voluptās nōn sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the greatest good;
- ita fit, ut nēmō esse possit beātus, thus it happens that no one can be happy;
- accedebat ut naves deessent, another thing was the lack of ships (lit. it was added that ships were lacking).
- As predicate or appositive after expressions like jūs est, mos est, consuētūdo est; also after neuter pronouns, hoc, illud, etc.
 Thus:—
- est mos hominum ut nolint eundem pluribus rebus excellere, it is the way of men not to wish the same person to excel in many things.

D. Substantive Clauses introduced by Quin.

298. Substantive Clauses introduced by quin (used sometimes as subject, sometimes as object) occur after negative and interrogative expressions of *doubt*, *omission*, and the like, particularly after non dubito, I do not doubt;

- dubitat, who doubts?; non (haud) dubium est, there is no doubt. The mood is the Subjunctive. Examples:—
- quis dubitat quIn in virtute divitiae sint, who doubts that in virtue there are riches?
- non dubium erat quin venturus esset, there was no doubt that he was about to come.
 - a. In Nepos, Livy, and post-Augustan writers an Infinitive sometimes takes the place of the quin-clause after non dubito; as, non dubitamus inventos esse, we do not doubt that men were found.
 - b. Non dubito, I do not hesitate, is regularly followed by the Infinitive, though sometimes by a quin-clause.

E. Substantive Clauses introduced by Quod.

- 299. I. Quod, the fact that, that, introduces Substantive Clauses in the Indicative. This construction occurs especially
 - a) In apposition with a preceding demonstrative, as hōc, id, illud, illa, ex eō, inde, etc. Thus:
 - illud est admīrātione dīgnum, quod captīvos retinendos cēnsuit, this is especially worthy of admiration, that he thought the prisoners ought to be kept;
 - hoc uno praestamus vel maxime feris, quod colloquimur inter nos, in this one respect are we especially superior to the beasts, that we talk with each other.
 - b) After bene fit, bene accidit, male fit, bene facere, etc.; as
 - bene mihi accidit, quod mittor ad mortem, it is well for me that I am sent to death;
 - bene fēcistī quod mānsistī, you did well in remaining.
- 2. Quod at the beginning of the sentence sometimes has the force of as regards the fact that. Thus:—
- quod multitudinem Germanorum in Galliam traduco, id mei muniendi causa facio, as regards the fact that I am transporting a multitude of Germans into Gaul, I am doing it for the sake of strengthening myself;
- quod mē Agamemnona aemulārī putās, falleris, as regards your thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken.

Indirect Questions.

- 300. I. Indirect Questions are Substantive Clauses used after verbs of asking, inquiring, telling and the like. They take their verb in the Subjunctive. Like Direct Questions (see § 162) they may be introduced
 - a) By Interrogative Pronouns or Adverbs; as,
 - dīc mihi ubi fueris, quid fēceris, tell me where you were, what you did;
 - oculis jūdicārī non potest in utram partem fluat Arar, it cannot be determined by the eye in which direction the Arar flows;
 - bis bina quot essent, nesciebat, he did not know how many two times two were.
- Note. Care should be taken to distinguish Indirect Questions from Relative Clauses. The difference between the two appears clearly in the following:—
- effugere nēmō id potest quod futūrum est, no one can escape what is destined to come to pass; but
- saepe autem ne ütile quidem est soïre quid futürum sit, but often it is not even useful to know what is coming to pass.
 - b) By num or -ne, without distinction of meaning; as,
 - Epamīnondās quaesīvit num salvus esset clipeus, or salvusne esset clipeus, Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe;
 - disputătur num interIre virtus in homine possit, the question is raised whether virtue can die in a man;
 - ex Socrate quaesitum est nonne Archelaum beatum putaret, the question was asked of Socrates whether he did not think Archelaus happy.

NOTE. — Nonne in Indirect Questions occurs only after quaero, as in the last example above.

- 2. Often the Indirect Question represents a Deliberative Subjunctive of the direct discourse; as,—
- nesciō quid faciam, I do not know what to do. (Direct: quid faciam, what shall I do!)

¹ Exclamations, also, upon becoming indirect, take the Subjunctive, as considera quam variae sint hominum cupidines, consider how varied are the desires of men. (Direct: quam variae sunt hominum cupidines)

3. After verbs of expectation and endeavor (exspecto, conor, experior, tempto) we sometimes find an Indirect Question introduced by sī; as,—

conantur si perrumpere possint, they try whether they can break through.

- a. Sometimes the governing verb is omitted; as, pergit ad proximam spēluncam sī forte eō vēstīgia ferrent, he proceeded to the nearest cave (to see) if the tracks led thither.
- 4. Indirect Double Questions are introduced in the main by the same particles as direct double questions (§ 162, 4); viz.:—

utrum . . . an;
-ne an;
-me an;
-me ne.

Examples: -

quaerō utrum vērum an falsum sit, quaerō vērumne an falsum sit, quaerō vērum an falsum sit, quaerō vērum falsumne sit,

I ask whether it is true or false?

- a. 'Or not' in the second member of a double question is ordinarily expressed by neone, less frequently by an non; as, —
 di utrum sint neone, quaeritur, it is asked whether there are gods or not.
- 5. Haud soid an, nescid an, by omission of the first member of the double question, occur with the Subjunctive in the sense: I am inclined to think, probably, perhaps; as,—

haud scio an hoc verum sit, I am inclined to think this is true.

6. In early Latin and in poetry the Indicative is sometimes used in Indirect Questions.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

301. Conditional Sentences are compound sentences (§ 164) consisting of two parts, the Protasis (or condition), usually introduced by sī, nisi, or sīn, and the Apodosis (or conclusion). We distinguish the following types of Conditional Sentences:—

First Type.—Nothing Implied as to the Reality of the Supposed Case.

- 302. I. Here we regularly have the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis. Any tense may be used; as,—
- sī hōc crēdis, errās, if you believe this, you are mistaken; nātūram sī sequēmur, numquam aberrābimus, if we follow Nature, we shall never go astray;

sī hōc dīxistī, errāstī, if you said this, you were in error.

- 2. Sometimes the Protasis takes the Indefinite Second Person Singular (§ 356, 3) of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with the force of the Indicative; as,—
- memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceas, memory grows weak unless you exercise it.
- 3. Here belong also those conditional sentences in which the Protasis denotes a repeated action (compare §§ 287, 2; 288, 3); as,—
- sī quis equitum déciderat, pedités circumsistébant, if any one of the horsemen fell, the foot-soldiers gathered about him.
 - a. Instead of the Indicative, Livy and subsequent writers employ the Subjunctive of the Historical tenses in the Protasis to denote repeated action; as,
 - si dicendo quis diem eximeret, if (ever) anybody consumed a day in pleading; si quando adsideret, if ever he sat by.
- 4. Where the sense demands it the Apodosis in conditional sentences of the First Type may be an Imperative or one of the Independent Subjunctives (Hortatory, Deliberative, etc.); as,—
- sī hōc crēditis, tacēte, if you believe this, be silent; sī hōc crēdimus, taceāmus, if we believe this, let us keep silent.

Second Type. — Supposed Case represented as Contingent.

- 303. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive (of the Present or Perfect tense) in both Protasis and Apodosis; as,—
- sī hōc dīcās, errēs, | if you should say this, you would be missī hōc dīxeris, errāveris, | taken.
- sī velim Hannibalis proelia omnia dēscrībere, diēs mē dēficiat, if I should wish to describe all the battles of Hannibal, time would fail me;

- mentiar, sī negem, I should lie, if I should deny it;
- haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nonne impetrāre dēbeat, if your country should plead thus with you, would she not deserve to obtain her request?
 - a. The Subjunctive in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of this type is of the Potential variety.
 - b. Sometimes we find the Indicative in the Apodosis of sentences of the Second Type, where the writer wishes to assert the consummation of a result more positively; as,
 - aliter sī faciat, nūllam habet auctoritātem, if he should do otherwise, he has no authority.

Third Type. — Supposed Case represented as Contrary to Fact.

- 304. 1. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive in both Protasis and Apodosis, the Imperfect referring to present time, and the Pluperfect referring to past; as,—
- sī amīcī meī adessent, opis non indigērem, if my friends were here, I should not lack assistance;
- sī hōc dīxissēs, errāssēs, if you had said this, you would have erred;
- sapientia non expeteretur, sī nihil efficeret, philosophy would not be desired, if it accomplished nothing;
- consilium, ratio, sententia nisi essent in senibus, non summum consilium mājores nostrī appellāssent senātum, unless deliberation, reason, and wisdom existed in old men, our ancestors would not have called their highest deliberative body a senate.
- 2. Sometimes the Imperfect Subjunctive is found referring to the past, especially to denote a continued act, or a state of things still existing; as,—
- Laelius, Furius, Catō, sī nihil litterīs adjuvārentur, numquam sē ad eārum studium contulissent, Laelius, Furius, and Cato would never have devoted themselves to the study of letters, unless they had been (constantly) helped by them;
- num igitur sī ad centēsimum annum vīxisset, senectūtis eum suae paenitēret, if he had lived to his hundredth year, would he have regretted (and now be regretting) his old age?

- 3. The Apodosis in conditional sentences of this type sometimes stands in the Indicative (Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect), viz.
 - a) Frequently in expressions of ability, obligation, or necessity; as,
 - nisi felicitäs in socordiam vertisset, exuere jugum potuerunt, unless their prosperity had turned to folly, they could have thrown off the yoke;
- NOTE. In sentences of this type, however, it is not the *possibility* that is represented as contrary-to-fact, but something to be supplied in thought from the context. Thus in the foregoing sentence the logical apodosis is **et exuissent** understood (and they would have shaken it off). When the possibility itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used.
 - eum patris loco colere debebas, sī ulla in te pietas esset, you ought to revere him as a father, if you had any sense of devotion.
 - b) With both the Periphrastic Conjugations; as,
 - sī Pompējus occīsus esset, fuistisne ad arma itūrī, if Pompey had been slain, would you have proceeded to arms?
 - sī unum diem morātī essētis, moriendum omnibus fuit, if you had delayed one day, you would all have had to die.

Protasis expressed without Sī.

- 305. 1. The Protasis is not always expressed by a clause with sī, but may be implied in a word, a phrase, or merely by the context; as,—
- aliōquī haec non scrīberentur, otherwise (i.e. if matters were otherwise) these things would not be written;
- non potestis, voluptate omnia dirigentes, retinere virtutem, you cannot retain virtue, if you direct everything with reference to pleasure.
- 2. Sometimes an Imperative, or a Jussive Subjunctive serves as Protasis. Thus:—
- crās petitō, dabitur, if you ask to-morrow, it shall be given you (lit. ask to-morrow, etc.);
- haec reputent, videbunt, if they consider this, they will see (lit. let them consider, etc.);
- cave have facias, beware not to do this! (Originally: do this! then beware! i.e. if you do it, beware! Hence beware not to do it!)

Use of Nisi, SI Non, SIn.

- 306. 1. Nisi, unless, negatives the entire protasis; sī non negatives a single word; as,—
- ferreus essem, nisi të amarem, I should be hard-hearted unless I loved you; but—
- ferreus essem, sī tē non amārem, I should be hard-hearted if I did NOT love you.

In the first example, it is the notion of *loving you* that is negatived, in the second, the notion of *loving*.

- 2. Sī non (sī minus) must be employed:
 - a) When an apodosis with at, tamen, certē follows; as, dolorem sī non potuero frangere, tamen occultābo, if I cannot crush my sorrow, yet I will hide it.
 - b) When an affirmative protasis is repeated in negative form;
 as,
 - sī fēceris, māgnam habēbō grātiam; sī non fēceris, ignoscam, if you do it, I shall be deeply grateful; if you do not do it, I shall pardon you.
 - a. But if the verb is omitted in the repetition, only sī minus is admissible; as,
 - hoc sī assecutus sum, gaudeo; sī minus, mē consolor, if I have attained this, I am glad; if not, I console myself.
- 3. Sin. Where one protasis is followed by another opposed in meaning, but affirmative in form, the second is introduced by sin; as,—hunc mihi timōrem ōripe; sī vērus est, nē opprimar, sīn falsus, ut timōre dōsinam, relieve me of this fear; if it is well founded, that I may not be destroyed; but if it is groundless,
- 4. Nisi has a fondness for combining with negatives (non, nomo, nihil); as,
 - nihil cogitavit nisi caedem, he had no thought but murder.
 - a. Non and nisi are always separated in the best Latinity.

that I may cease to fear.

- 5. Nisi forte, nisi vērō, nisi sī, unless perchance, unless indeed (often with ironical force), take the Indicative; as,—
- nisi vērō, quia perfecta rēs nōn est, nōn vidētur pūnienda, unless indeed, because an act is not consummated, it does not seem to merit punishment.

Conditional Clauses of Comparison.

- 307. I. Conditional Clauses of Comparison are introduced by the particles, ac sī, ut sī, quasi, quam sī, tamquam sī, velut sī, or simply by velut or tamquam. They are followed by the Subjunctive mood and regularly involve an ellipsis, as indicated in the following examples:—
- tantus patrēs metus cēpit, velut sī jam ad portās hostis esset, as great fear seized the senators as (would have seized them) if the enemy were already at the gates;
- sed quid ego his testibus utor quasi res dubia aut obscura sit, but why do I use these witnesses, as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure;
- serviam tibi tamquam sī ēmeris mē argentō, I will serve you as though you had bought me for money.
- 2. Note that in sentences of this kind the Latin observes the regular principles for the Sequence of Tenses. Thus after principal tenses the Latin uses the Present and Perfect (as in the second and third examples), where the English uses the Past and the Past Perfect.

Concessive Clauses.

- 308. The term 'Concessive' is best restricted to those clauses developed from the Jussive Subjunctive which have the force of granted that, etc. (see § 278); as,—
- sit für, sit sacrilegus, at est bonus imperator, granted that he is a thief and a robber, yet he is a good commander;
- ut hoc verum sit, granted that this is true;
- no sit summum malum dolor, malum certo est, granted that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil.
 - a. Here also belongs the use of the Subjunctive with licet (see § 295, 6), where licet has the force of he may, they may, etc.; as,—fremant omnes licet, dicam quod sentio, they may all shout, (but) I shall say what I think.

Adversative Clauses with Quamvis, Quamquam, etc.

309. Clauses introduced by quamvis, quamquam, etsi, tametsi, cum, although, while often classed as 'Concessive,' are yet essentially different from genuine Concessive

- clauses. As a rule, they do not grant or concede anything, but rather state that something is true in spite of something else. They accordingly emphasize the adversative idea, and are properly Subordinate Adversative Clauses. The different particles used to introduce these clauses have different meanings and take different constructions, as follows:—
- 1. Quamvis, however much, although, does not introduce a statement of fact, but represents an act merely as conceived. It is followed by the Subjunctive, usually of the present tense; as,—
- hominës quamvis in turbidis rëbus sint, tamen interdum animis relaxantur, in however stirring events men may engage, yet at times they relax their energies;
- non est potestas opitulandi rei publicae quamvis ea prematur periculis, there is no opportunity to succor the state, though it be beset by dangers.
- 2. Quamquam, etsī, tametsī, although, introduce a statement of fact, and are followed by the Indicative (of any tense); as,—
- quamquam omnis virtūs nos allicit, tamen jūstitia id māximē efficit, although all virtue attracts us, yet justice does so especially;
- Caesar, etsī nondum consilium hostium cognoverat, tamen id quod accidit suspicābātur, Caesar, though he did not yet know the plans of the enemy, yet was suspecting what actually occurred.
 - a. Etsī, although, must be distinguished from etsī, even if. The latter is a conditional particle and takes any of the constructions admissible for sī. (See §§ 302-304.)
- 3. Cum, although, is followed by the Subjunctive; as,—
 Atticus honores non petiit, cum el paterent, Atticus did not seek
 honors, though they were open to him.
- 4. **Licet** sometimes loses its verbal force (see § 308, a) and sinks to the level of a conjunction with the force of *although*. It takes the Subjunctive, Present or Perfect; as,—
- licet omnës terrorës impendeant, succurram, though all terrors hang over me, (yet) I will lend aid.
- 5. Quamquam, with the force and yet, is often used to introduce principal clauses; as,
 - quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak?

6. In post-Augustan writers **quamquam** is freely construed with the Subjunctive, while **quamvis** is often used to introduce statements of fact, and takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Thus:—

quamquam movērētur his vēcibus, although he was moved by these words; quamvis multi opinārentur, though many thought;

quamvis infesto animo perveneras, though you had come with hostile intent.

Clauses with Dum, Modo, Dummodo, denoting a Wish or a Proviso.

- 310. These particles are followed by the Subjunctive (negative ne) and have two distinct uses:—
- I. They are used to introduce clauses *embodying a wish* entertained by the subject of the leading verb; as,—
- multī honesta neglegunt dummodo potentiam consequantur, many neglect honor in their desire to obtain power (if only they may attain);
- omnia postposuī, dum praeceptīs patris pārērem, I made everything else secondary, in my desire to obey the injunctions of my father; nīl obstat tibi, dum nē sit dītior alter, nothing hinders you in your desire that your neighbor may not be richer than you.
- II. They are used to express a proviso ('provided that'); as,—
- oderint, dum metuant, let them hate, provided they fear;
- manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria, old men retain their faculties, provided only they retain their interest and vigor;
- nubant, dum ne dos fiat comes, let them marry, provided no dowry goes with it.

NOTE. — Of these two uses of dum, modo, and dummodo, the first is the original one; the second has grown out of the first, and frequently retains the original notion of wishing, as in oderint, dum metuant.

Relative Clauses.

- 311. Relative Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs.
- 312. 1. Relative clauses usually stand in the Indicative Mood, especially clauses introduced by those General Relatives which are doubled or have the suffix -cunque; as,—

- quidquid id est, timeo Danaos et dona ferentes, whatever it is, I fear the Greeks even when they offer gifts;
- quidquid oritur, qualecunque est, causam a natura habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever sort it is, has its primal cause in Nature.
- 2. Any simple Relative may introduce a conditional sentence of any of the three types mentioned in §§ 302-304; as,—
- quī hōc dīcit, errat, he who says this is mistaken (First Type); quī hōc dīcat, erret, he would be mistaken who should say this (Second Type);
- quī hōc dīxisset, errāsset, the man who had said this would have been mistaken.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE (ORĀTIO OBLĪQUA).

- 313. When the language or thought of any person is quoted without change, that is called Direct Discourse ($\bar{O}r\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$ $R\bar{e}cta$); as, Caesar said, 'The die is cast.' When, on the other hand, one's language or thought is made to depend upon a verb of saying, thinking, etc., that is called Indirect Discourse ($\bar{O}r\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$ Oblīqua); as, Caesar said that the die was cast; Caesar thought that his troops were victorious.
 - a. For the verbs most frequently employed to introduce Indirect Discourse, see § 331.

MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Declaratory Sentences.

- 314. I. Declaratory Sentences upon becoming Indirect change their main clause to the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, while all subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive; as,—
- Rēgulus dīxit quam diū jūre jūrandō hostium tenērētur non esse sē senātorem, Regulus said that as long as he was held by his pledge to the enemy he was not a senator. (Direct: quam diū teneor non sum senātor.)

- 2. The verb of saying, thinking, etc., is sometimes to be inferred from the context; as,—
- tum Romulus legatos circa vicinas gentes misit qui societatem conübiumque peterent: urbes quoque, ut cetera, ex infimo nasci, then Romulus sent envoys around among the neighboring tribes, to ask for alliance and the right of intermarriage, (saying that) cities, like everything else, start from a modest beginning.
- 3. Subordinate clauses which contain an explanatory statement of the writer are not properly a part of the Indirect Discourse, and hence regularly take the Indicative; as,—
- certior factus ex eā parte vīcī, quam Gallīs concesserat, omnēs noctū discessisse, he was informed that all had departed by night from that part of the village which he had granted to the Gauls.
- 4. Sometimes a subordinate clause is such only in its external form, and in sense is principal. It then takes the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. This occurs especially in case of relative clauses, where quī is equivalent to et hīc, nam hīc, etc.; as,—
- dixit urbem Athēniēnsium propūgnāculum oppositum esse barbarīs, apud quam jam bis classēs rēgiās fēcisse naufragium, he said the city of the Athenians had been set against the barbarians like a bulwark, near which (= and near it) the fleets of the King had twice wet disaster.
- 5. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is sometimes omitted when it refers to the same person as the subject of the leading verb, or can easily be supplied from the context; as,—
- cum id nescīre Māgō dīceret, when Mago said he did not know this (for sē nescīre).

Interrogative Sentences.

- 315. 1. Real questions of the Direct Discourse, upon becoming indirect, are regularly put in the Subjunctive; as,—
- Ariovistus Caesarī respondit: sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Rōmānum. Quid sibi vellet? Cūr in suās possessionēs venīret, Ariovistus replied to Caesar that he

had come into Gaul before the Roman people. What did he (Caesar) mean? Why did he come into his domain? (Direct: quid tibi vis? cūr in meās possessionēs venīs?)

- 2. Rhetorical questions, on the other hand, being asked merely for effect, and being equivalent in force to emphatic statements, regularly stand in the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse. Thus:—
- quid est levius (lit. what is more trivial, = nothing is more trivial) of the Direct Discourse becomes quid esse levius in the Indirect.
- 3. Deliberative Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse remain unchanged in mood in the Indirect; as,—

quid faceret, what was he to do? (Direct: quid faciam?)

Imperative Sentences.

- 316. All Imperatives or Jussive Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse appear as Subjunctives in the Indirect; as,—
- mīlitēs certiorēs fēcit paulisper intermitterent proelium, he told the soldiers to stop the battle for a little. (Direct: intermittite.)
 - a. The Negative in such sentences is nē; as, nē suae virtūtī tribueret, let him not attribute it to his own valor!

TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

A. Tenses of the Infinitive.

- 317. These are used in accordance with the regular principles for the use of the Infinitive as given in § 270.
 - a. The Perfect Infinitive may represent any past tense of the Indicative of Direct Discourse. Thus:—

sciō tē haec ēgisse may mean -

I know you were doing this. (Direct: haec agebas.)
I know you did this. (Direct: haec egistī.)
I know you had done this. (Direct: haec egerās.)

B. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

318. These follow the regular principle for the Sequence of Tenses, being Principal if the verb of saying is Principal; Historical if it is Historical. Yet for the sake of vividness, we often find the Present Subjunctive used after an historical tense; as,—

Caesar respondit, sī obsidēs dentur, sēsē pācem esse factūrum, Caesar replied that, if hostages be given, he would make peace.

a. For the sequence after the Perfect Infinitive, see § 268, 2.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Conditional Sentences of the First Type.

- **319.** A. The Apodosis. Any tense of the Indicative is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive (§§ 270; 317, a).
- B. The Protasis. The protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive which are required by the Sequence of Tenses.

INDIRECT.

Examples: -

DIRECT.

sī hōc crēdis, errās,

dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errāre;
dīxī, sī hōc crēdēs, tē errātīrum esse;
dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errātīrum esse;
dīxī, sī hōc crēdideris, tē errātīrum esse.

dīcō, sī hōc crēdideris, tē errātīrum esse.

 $s\bar{i}\ h\bar{o}c\ \textbf{crēdēbās},\ \textbf{errāvist}\bar{i}, \begin{cases} d\bar{i}c\bar{o},\ s\bar{i}\ h\bar{o}c\ \textbf{crēderēs},\ t\bar{e}\ \textbf{errāvisse};\\ d\bar{i}x\bar{i},\ s\bar{i}\ h\bar{o}c\ \textbf{crēderēs},\ t\bar{e}\ \textbf{errāvisse}. \end{cases}$

a. Note that a Future Perfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse regularly appears in the Indirect as a Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and as a Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense.

P

Conditional Sentences of the Second Type.

- **320.** A. The Apodosis. The Present Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse regularly becomes the Future Infinitive of the Indirect.
- B. THE PROTASIS. The Protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive demanded by the sequence of tenses.

Examples: —

sī hōc crēdās, errēs, $\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} d\bar{i}c\bar{o},\,s\bar{i}\,\,h\bar{o}c\,\,crēdās,\,t\bar{e}\,\,errāt\bar{u}rum\,\,esse\,;\\ d\bar{i}x\bar{i},\,s\bar{i}\,\,h\bar{o}c\,\,crēderēs,\,t\bar{e}\,\,errāt\bar{u}rum\,\,esse. \end{array} \right.$

Conditional Sentences of the Third Type.

321. A. THE APODOSIS.

- I. The Imperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes:
 - a) In the Active Voice the Future Infinitive.
 - b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form futurum esse (fore) ut, with the Imperfect Subjunctive.
- 2. The Pluperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes:
 - a) In the Active Voice the Infinitive in -urus fuisse.
 - b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form futurum fuisse ut with the Imperfect Subjunctive.
- B. THE PROTASIS. The protasis in Conditional Sentences of this type always remains unchanged.

Examples: —

sī hōc **crēderēs, errārēs,**

dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse;

sī hōc **crēdidissēs**, **errāvissēs**,

dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum fuisse;

sī hoc dīzissēs, pūnītus essēs,

dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc dīxissēs fūtūrum fuisse ut pūnīrēris.

322. When an apodosis of a conditional sentence of the Third Type referring to the past is at the same time a Result clause, or a

- quīn-clause (after non dubito, etc.), it stands in the Perfect Subjunctive in the form -ūrus fuerim; as,—
- ita territī sunt, ut arma trāditūrī fuerint,¹ nisi Caesar subitō advēnisset, they were so frightened that they would have given up their arms, had not Caesar suddenly arrived;
- non dubito quin, sī hoc dīxissēs, errātūrus fueris, I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have made a mistake.
 - a. This peculiarity is confined to the Active Voice. In the Passive, such sentences, when they become dependent, remain unchanged; as,
 - non dubito quin, si hoc dixisses, vituperatus esses, I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have been blamed.
 - b. When an Indirect Question becomes an apodosis in a conditional sentence of the Third Type, -ūrus fuerim (rarely -ūrus fuesem) is used; as,
 - quaerō, num, sī hōc dīxissēs, errātūrus fueris (or fuissēs).
 - c. Potul, when it becomes a dependent apodosis in sentences of this Type, usually changes to the Perfect Subjunctive; as.
 - concursu totius civitatis defensi sunt, ut frigidissimos quoque oratores populi studia excisare potuerint, they were defended before a gathering of all the citizens, so that the interest of the people would have been enough to excite even the most apathetic orators.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

- **323.** The Subjunctive is often used in subordinate clauses whose Indirect character is *merely implied by the context*; as,—
- dēmonstrābantur mihi praetereā, quae Socratēs dē immortālitāte animorum disseruisset, there were explained to me besides, the arguments which Socrates had set forth concerning the immortality of the soul (i.e. the arguments which, it was said, Socrates had set forth);
- Paetus omnēs libros quos pater suus relīquisset mihi donāvit, Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said) his father had left.

¹ Trāditūrī fuerint and errātūrus fueris are to be regarded as representing trāditūrī fuērunt and errātūrus fuistī of Direct Discourse. (See § 304, 3, b).

SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

- 324. I. Subordinate clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive are frequently attracted into the same mood, especially when they do not express a fact, but constitute an essential part of one complex idea; as,—
- nēmō avārus adhūc inventus est, cui, quod habēret, esset satis, no miser has yet been found who was satisfied with what he had;
- cum diversas causas afferrent, dum formam sui quisque et animi et ingenii redderent, as they brought forward different arguments, while each mirrored his own individual type of mind and natural bent.
- quod ego fatear, pudeat, should I be ashamed of a thing which I admit?
- 2. Similarly a subordinate clause dependent upon an Infinitive is put in the Subjunctive when the two form one closely united whole; as,—
- mõs est Athēnīs quotannīs in contione laudārī eos quī sint in proeliīs interfectī, it is the custom at Athens every year for those to be publicly eulogized who have been killed in battle. (Here the notion of 'praising those who fell in battle' forms an inseparable whole.)

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

325. These are the Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, and Supine. All of these partake of the nature of the Verb, on the one hand, and of the Noun or Adjective, on the other. Thus:—

As Verbs, -

- a) They may be limited by adverbs;
- b) They admit an object;
- c) They have the properties of voice and tense.

As Nouns or Adjectives, -

- a) They are declined;
- b) They take Noun or Adjective constructions.

THE INFINITIVE.

Infinitive without Subject Accusative.

326. This may be used either as Subject or Object.

NOTE. — The Infinitive was originally a Dative, and traces of this are still to be seen in the poetical use of the Infinitive to express purpose; as, nec dulces occurrent oscula nati praeripere, and no sweet children will run to snatch kisses.

A. As Subject.

- 327. I. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Subject of esse and various impersonal verbs, particularly opus est, necesse est, oportet, juvat, dēlectat, placet, libet, licet, praestat, condūcit, expedit, decet, pudet, interest, etc.; as,—
- dulce et decōrum est prō patriā morī, it is sweet and noble to die for one's country;
- virorum est fortium toleranter dolorem patī, it is the part of brave men to endure pain with patience;
- senātuī placuit lēgātōs mittere, the Senate decided (lit. it pleased the Senate) to send envoys.
- 2. Even though the Infinitive itself appears without Subject, it may take a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the Accusative; as,—
- aliud est īrācundum esse, aliud īrātum, it is one thing to be irascible, another to be angry;
- impune quaelibet facere, id est regem esse, to do whatever you please with impunity, that is to be a king.
 - a. But when licet is followed by a Dative of the person, a Predicate Noun or Adjective with esse is attracted into the same case; as, licuit esse otioso Themistocli, lit. it was permitted to Themistocles to be at leisure. So sometimes with other Impersonals.

B. As Object.

328. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Object of many verbs, to denote another action of the same subject, particularly after—

volō, cupiō, mālō, nōlō; dēbeō, ought; statuō, cōnstituō, decide; cogito, meditor, purpose, intend; neglego, neglect; vereor, timeo, fear; audeō, dare; studeō, contendō, strive; parō, prepare (so parātus); incipiō, coepī, īnstituō, begin; pergō, continue; dēsinō, dēsistō, cease; possum, can; cōnor, try; mātūrō, festīnō, properō, contendō, hasten;
assuēscō, cōnsuēscō, accustom
myself (so assuētus, īnsuētus,
assuēfactus);
discō, learn;
sciō, know how;
soleō, am wont; as,—

tū hōs intuērī audēs, do you dare to look on these men?

Dēmosthenēs ad fluctum maris dēclāmāre solēbat, Demosthenes

used to declaim by the waves of the sea.

2. A Predicate Noun or Adjective with these Infinitives is attracted into the Nominative; as,—

beātus esse sine virtūte nēmō potest, no one can be happy without virtue;

Catô esse quam vidērī bonus mālēbat, Cato preferred to be good rather than to seem so.

Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

329. This may be used either as Subject or Object.

A. As Subject.

330. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative (like the simple Infinitive) appears as Subject with esse and Impersonal verbs, particularly with aequum est, jūstum est, ūtile est, turpe est, apertum est, perspicuum est, fāma est, opīniō est, spēs est, fās est, nefās est, opus est, necesse est, oportet, appāret, cōnstat, praestat, etc.; as,—

nihil in bello oportet contemnī, nothing ought to be despised in war; apertum est sibi quemque nātūrā esse cārum, it is manifest that by nature everybody is dearest to himself.

B. As Object.

- 331. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used as Object after the following classes of verbs:—
- I. Most frequently after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, perceiving, and the like (Verba Sentiendī et Dēclārandī). This is the

regular construction of Principal Clauses of Indirect Discourse. Verbs that take this construction are, among others, the following: sentiō, audiō, videō, cognōscō; putō, jūdicō, spērō, cōnfīdō; sciō, meminī; dīcō, affīrmō, negō (say that . . . not), trādō, nārrō, fateor, respondeō, scrībō, prōmittō, glōrior. Also the phrases: certiōrem faciō (inform), memoriā teneō (remember), etc.

Examples: -

- Epicures putant cum corporibus simul animos interire, the Epicureans think that the soul perishes with the body;
- Thales dixit aquam esse initium rerum, Thales said that water was the first principle of the universe;
- **Démocritus negat quicquid esse sempiternum**, *Democritus says nothing is everlasting*;
- spērō eum ventūrum esse, I hope that he will come.
 - II. With jubeo, order, and veto, forbid; as, -
- Caesar milités pontem facere jussit, Caesar ordered the soldiers to make a bridge.
 - a. When the name of the person who is ordered or forbidden to do something is omitted, the Infinitive with jubeo and veto is put in the Passive; as, Caesar pontem fleri jussit.
 - III. With patior and sino, permit, allow; as, -
- nullo se implicari negotio passus est, he did not permit himself to be involved in any difficulty.
- IV. With volo, nolo, malo, cupio, when the Subject of the Infinitive is different from that of the governing verb; as,—
- nec mihi hunc errorem extorquerī volo, nor do I wish this error to be wrested from me;
- eas res jactarī nolebat, he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed;
- të tuis divitiis frui cupimus, we desire that you enjoy your wealth.
 - a. When the Subject of both verbs is the same, the simple Infinitive is regularly used in accordance with § 328, 1. But exceptions occur, especially in case of €88€ and Passive Infinitives; as,
 - cupio me esse clementem, I desire to be lenient;
 - Timoleon māluit sē diligī quam metui, Timoleon preferred to be loved rather than feared.
 - b. Volo and nolo also admit the Subjunctive, with or without ut. (See § 296, 1, a.)

- V. With Verbs of emotion (joy, sorrow, regret, etc.), especially gaudeō, laetor, doleō; aegrē ferō, molestē ferō, graviter ferō, am annoyed, distressed; mīror, queror, indīgnor; as,—
- gaudeō të salvum advenīre, I rejoice that you arrive safely;
 non molestë ferunt së libīdinum vinculīs laxātōs esse, they are
 not troubled at being released from the bonds of passion;
 mīror të ad më nihil scrībere. I wonder that you write me nothing.
 - a. Instead of an Infinitive these verbs also sometimes admit a quodclause as Object. (See § 299.) Thus: miror quod non loqueris, I wonder that you do not speak.
- VI. Some verbs which take two Accusatives, one of the Person and the other of the Thing (§ 178, 1) may substitute an Infinitive for the second Accusative; as,—
- cogo to hoc facere, I compel you to do this (cf. to hoc cogo); docui to contentum esse, I taught you to be content (cf. to modestiam docui, I taught you temperance).

Passive Construction of the Foregoing Verbs.

- 332. Those verbs which in the Active are followed by the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, usually admit the personal construction in the Passive. This is true of the following:
 - a) jubeor, vetor, sinor; as,
 - mīlitēs pontem facere jussī sunt, the soldiers were ordered to build a bridge;
 - pons fierī jussus est, a bridge was ordered built;
 - mīlitēs castrīs exīre vetitī sunt, the troops were forbidden to go out of the camp;
 - Sestius Clodium accuser non est situs, Sestius was not allowed to accuse Clodius.
 - b) videor, I am seen, I seem; as,—
 vidētur comperisse, he seems to have discovered.
 - c) dicor, putor, existimor, jūdicor (in all persons); as, dicitur in Italiam vēnisse, he is said to have come into Italy;
 - Romulus primus rex Romanorum fuisse putatur, Romulus is thought to have been the first king of the Romans.

- d) fertur, feruntur, trāditur, trāduntur (only in the third person); as,
 - fertur Homērus caecus fuisse, Homer is said to have been blind;
 - carmina Archilochī contumēliīs referta esse trāduntur, Archilochus's poems are reported to have been full of abuse.

NOTE.—In compound tenses and periphrastic forms, the last two classes of verbs, c), d), more commonly take the impersonal construction; as,—
trāditum est Homērum caecum fuisse, the story goes that Homer was blind.

Infinitive with Adjectives.

333. The Infinitive with Adjectives (except parātus, assuētus, etc.; see § 328, 1) occurs only in poetry and post-Augustan prose writers; as,—

contentus démonstrasse, contented to have proved; audax omnia perpeti, bold for enduring everything.

Infinitive in Exclamations.

334. The Infinitive is used in Exclamations implying scorn, indignation, or regret. An interrogative (or intensive) -ne is often attached to some word in the clause. Examples:—

huncine solem tam nigrum surrexe mihi, to think that to-day's sun rose with such evil omen for me!

sedēre tōtōs diēs in vīllā, to stay whole days at the villa!

Historical Infinitive.

335. The Infinitive is often used in historical narrative instead of the Imperfect Indicative. The Subject stands in the Nominative; as,—interim cottīdiē Caesar Aeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, meanwhile Caesar was daily demanding grain of the Aedui.

PARTICIPLES.

Tenses of the Participle.

336. 1. The tenses of the Participle, like those of the Infinitive (see § 270), express time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb upon which the Participle depends.

2. The Present Participle denotes action contemporary with that of the verb. Thus: —

audiō tē loquentem = you ARE speaking and I hear you; audiēbam tē loquentem = you WERE speaking and I heard you; audiam tē loquentem = you WILL BE speaking and I shall hear you.

- a. The Present Participle is sometimes employed with Conative force; as,
 - assurgentem regem resupinat, as the king was trying to rise, he threw him down.
- 3. The Perfect Passive Participle denotes action prior to that of the verb. Thus:— .

locūtus taceō = I HAVE spoken and am silent; locūtus tacuī = I HAD spoken and then was silent; locūtus tacēbō = I SHALL speak and then shall be silent.

- 4. The absolute time of the action of a participle, therefore, is determined entirely by the finite verb with which it is connected.
- 5. Certain Perfect Passive Participles of Deponent and Semi-Deponent Verbs are used as Presents; viz. arbitratus, ausus, ratus, gāvīsus, solitus, ūsus, confisus, diffisus, secūtus, veritus.

Use of Participles.

- 337. As an Adjective the Participle may be used either as an attributive or predicate modifier of a Substantive.
- 1. Attributive Use. This presents no special peculiarities. Examples are:—
- gloria est consentions laus bonorum, glory is the unanimous praise of the good;
- Conon mūros ā Lysandro dīrutos refleit, Conon restored the walls destroyed by Lysander.
- 2. Predicate Use. Here the Participle is often equivalent to a subordinate clause. Thus the Participle may denote:—
 - a) Time; as,—
 omne malum nāscēns facile opprimitur, every evil is
 easily crushed at birth.
 - b) A Condition; as, mente ūtī non possumus cibo et potione completi, if gorged with food and drink, we cannot use our intellects.

- c) Manner; as, -
 - Solon senëscere së dicëbat multa in diës addiscentem, Solon said he grew old learning many new things daily.
- d) Means; as,
 - sol oriens diem conficit, the sun, by its rising, makes the day.
 - e) Opposition ('though'); as, -
 - mendācī hominī nē vērum quidem dīcentī crēdimus, we do not believe a liar, though he speaks the truth.
- f) Cause; as,
 - perfidiam veritus ad suos recessit, since he feared treachery, he returned to his own troops.
- 3. Video and audio, besides the Infinitive, take the Present Participle in the Predicate use; as,—

video të fugientem, I see you fleeing.

- a. So frequently facio, fingo, induco, etc.; as,
 - els Catonem respondentem facimus, we represent Cato replying to them;
 - Homerus Laertem colentem agrum facit, Homer represents

 Laertes tilling the field.
- 4. The Future Active Participle (except futures) is regularly confined to its use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, but in poets and later writers it is used independently, especially to denote purpose; as,—

vēnērunt castra oppūgnātūrī, they came to assault the camp.

- 5. The Perfect Passive Participle is often equivalent to a co-ordinate clause; as,—
- urbem captam diruit, he captured and destroyed the city (lit. he destroyed the city captured).
- 6. The Perfect Passive Participle in combination with a noun is sometimes equivalent to an abstract noun with a dependent Genitive; as,—

post urbem conditam, after the founding of the city;
Quinctius defensus, the defense of Quinctius;

quibus animus occupātus, the preoccupation of the mind with which.

7. Habeō sometimes takes a Perfect Passive Participle in the Predicate construction with a force not far removed from that of the Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative; as,—

copias quas coactas habebat, the forces which he had collected.

- 8. The Gerundive denotes obligation or necessity. Like other Participles it may be used either as Attributive or Predicate.
 - a) Less frequently as Attributive. Thus: —
 liber legendus, a book worth reading;
 leges observandae, laws deserving of observance.
 - b) More frequently as Predicate.
 - 1) In the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (amandus est, etc.). In this use Intransitive Verbs can be used only impersonally, but admit their ordinary case-construction (Gen., Dat., Abl.); as,—

veniendum est, it is necessary to come;

- oblīvīscendum est injūriārum, one must forget injuries; numquam proditorī credendum est, you must never trust a traitor;
- suo cuique ütendum est jüdicio, every man must use his own judgment.
- 2) After cūrō, provide for; dō, trādō, give over; relinquō, leave; conoēdō, hand over; and some other verbs, instead of an object clause or to denote purpose; as,—

Caesar pontem in Arare faciendum curavit, Caesar provided for the construction of a bridge over the Arar;

- imperator urbem militibus diripiendam concessit, the general handed over the city to the soldiers to plunder.
- 9. For the Gerundive as the equivalent of the Gerund, see § 339, 1.

THE GERUND.

- 338. As a verbal noun the Gerund admits noun constructions as follows:—
 - 1. Genitive. The Genitive of the Gerund is used -
 - a) With nouns, as Objective or Appositional Genitive (see §§ 200, 202); as, —

cupiditās dominandī, desire of ruling; ars scrībendī, the art of writing.

- b) With Adjectives; as, —
 cupidus audiendī, desirous of hearing.
- c) With causa, gratia; as,—
 discendi causa, for the sake of learning.

- 2. Dative. The Dative of the Gerund is used -
 - a) With Adjectives; as, —
 aqua ūtilis est bibendō, water is useful for drinking.
 - b) With Verbs (rarely); as,—
 adful scribendo, I was present at the writing.
- 3. Accusative. The Accusative of the Gerund is used only with Prepositions, chiefly ad and in to denote purpose; as,—

homo ad agendum natus est, man is born for action.

- 4. Ablative. The Ablative of the Gerund is used
 - a) Without a Preposition, as an Ablative of Means, Cause, etc. (see §§ 218, 219); as,
 - mēns discendo alitur et cogitando, the mind is nourished by learning and reflection.
 - Themistocles maritimos praedones consectando mare tūtum reddidit, Themistocles made the sea safe by following up the pirates.
 - b) After the prepositions a, de, ex, in; as,
 - summa voluptās ex discendo capitur, the keenest pleasure is derived from learning;
 - multa de bene besteque vivendo a Platone disputata sunt, there was much discussion by Plato on the subject of living well and happily.
- 5. As a rule, only the Genitive of the Gerund and the Ablative (without a preposition) admit a Direct Object.

Gerundive Construction instead of the Gerund.

339. I. Instead of the Genitive or Ablative of the Gerund with a Direct Object, another construction may be, and very often is, used. This consists in putting the Direct Object in the case of the Gerund (Gen. or Abl.) and using the Gerundive in agreement with it. This is called the Gerundive Construction. Thus:—

Gerund Construction.

Cupidus urbem videndī, desirous
of seeing the city;

dēlector ōrātōrēs legendō, I am
dēlector ōrātōribus legendīs

charmed with reading the orators.

2. The Gerundive Construction *must be used* to avoid a Direct Object with the Dative of the Gerund, or with a case dependent upon a Preposition; as,—

locus castrīs mūniendīs aptus, a place adapted to fortifying a camp; ad pācem petendam vēnērunt, they came to ask peace;

- multum temporis consumo in legendis poetis, I spend much time in reading the poets.
- 3. In order to avoid ambiguity (see § 236, 2), the Gerundive Construction must not be employed in case of Neuter Adjectives used substantively. Thus regularly—
- philosophī cupidī sunt vērum invēstīgandī, philosophers are eager for discovering truth (rarely vērī invēstīgandī);
- studium plūra cognoscendī, a desire of knowing more (not plūrium cognoscendōrum).
- 4. From the nature of the case only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Gerundive Construction; but ütor, fruor, fungor, potior (originally transitive) regularly admit it; as,—
- hostes in spem potiundorum castrorum venerant, the enemy had conceived the hope of gaining possession of the camp.
- 5. The Genitives meI, tuI, suI, nostrI, vestrI, when used in the Gerundive Construction, are regularly employed without reference to Gender or Number, since they were originally Neuter Singular Adjectives used substantively. Thus:—
- mulier suI servandI causa aufugit, the woman fled for the sake of saving herself;
- lēgātī in castra vēnērunt suī pūrgandī causā, the envoys came into camp for the purpose of clearing themselves;
- So nostrī servandī causā, for the sake of saving ourselves.
- 6. Occasionally the Genitive of the Gerundive Construction is used to denote purpose; as,—
- sī arborum truncī sīve nāvēs dēiciendī operis essent a barbarīs missae, if trunks of trees or boats should be sent down by the barbarians for the purpose of destroying the structure.
- 7. The Dative of the Gerundive Construction occurs in some expressions which have the character of formulas; as,—
- decemvirī lēgibus scrībundīs, decemvirs for codifying the laws; quindecimvirī sacrīs faciundīs, quindecemvirs for performing the sacrifices.

THE SUPINE.

- **340.** I. The Supine in -um is used after Verbs of motion to express purpose; as, —
- lēgātī ad Caesarem grātulātum convēnērunt, envoys came to Caesar to congratulate him.
 - a. The Supine in -um may take an Object; as, pācem petītum ōrātōrēs Rōmam mittunt, they send envoys to Rome to ask for peace.
 - b. Note the phrase:
 - dō (collocō) filiam nūptum, I give my daughter in marriage.
- 2. The Supine in -ū is used as an Ablative of Specification with facilis, difficilis, incrēdibilis, jūcundus, optimus, etc.; also with fās est, nefās est, opus est; as,—

haec res est facilis cognitu, this thing is easy to learn; hoc est optimum factu, this is best to do.

- a. Only a few Supines in -ū are in common use, chiefly audītū, cognitū, dictū, factū, vīsū.
- b. The Supine in -ū never takes an Object.

CHAPTER VI. — Particles.

COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

- **341.** Copulative Conjunctions. These *join* one word, phrase, or clause to another.
 - 1. a) et simply connects.
 - b) -que joins more closely than et, and is used especially where the two members have an internal connection with each other; as,—

parentes liberique, parents and children; cum homines aestu febrique jactantur, when people are tossed about with heat and fever.

c) atque (ac) usually emphasizes the second of the two things connected,—and also, and indeed, and in fact. After words of likeness and difference atque (ac) has the force of as, than. Thus:—

ego idem sentio ac tu, I think the same as you; haud aliter ac, not otherwise than.

- d) neque (nec) means and not, neither, nor.
- 2. a) -que is an enclitic, and is appended always to the second of two words connected. Where it connects phrases or clauses it is appended to the first word of the second clause; but when the first word of the second clause is a Preposition, -que is regularly appended to the next following word; as, ob eamque rem, and on account of that thing.
 - atque is used before vowels and consonants; ac never before vowels, and seldom before c, g, qu.
 - c) et non is used for neque when the emphasis of the negative rests upon a special word; as,
 - vetus et non ignobilis orator, an old and not ignoble orator.
 - d) For and nowhere, and never, and none, the Latin regularly said nec tisquam, nec umquam, nec tillus, etc.
- 3. Correlatives. Copulative Conjunctions are frequently used correlatively; as,—

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et . . . et, both . . . and;
neque (nec) . . . neque (nec), neither . . . nor;
cum . . . tum, while . . . at the same time;
tum . . . tum, not only . . . but also.
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Less frequently: -

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et . . . neque; neque . . . et.
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a. Note that the Latin, with its tendency to emphasize antithetical relations, often uses correlatives, especially et . . . et, et . . . neque, where the English employs but a single connective.

4. In enumerations —

- a) The different members of a series may follow one another without connectives (Asyndeton; see § 346). Thus:
 - ex cupiditătibus odia, discidia, discordiae, sēditionēs, bella nāscuntur, from covetous desires spring up hatred, dissensions. discord, sedition, wars.

- b) The different members may severally be connected by et (Polysyndeton). Thus:
 - horae cedunt et dies et menses et anni, hours and days and years and months pass away.
- c) The connective may be omitted between the former members, while the last two are connected by -que (rarely et); as,—
 - Caesar in Carnutes, Andes Turonesque legiones deducit, Caesar leads his legions into the territory of the Carnutes, Andes, and Turones.

342. Disjunctive Conjunctions indicate an alternative.

- a) aut must be used when the alternatives are mutually exclusive; as,
 - cita mors venit aut victoria laeta, (either) swift death or glad victory comes.
 - b) vel, -ve (enclitic) imply a choice between the alternatives; as,
 - qui aether vel caelum nominatur, which is called aether or heaven.
- 2. Correlatives. Disjunctive Conjunctions are often used correlatively; as,—

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aut ... aut, either ... or;
vel ... vel, either ... or;
sive ... sive, if ... or if.
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- 343. Adversative Conjunctions. These denote oppo-
 - 1. a) sed, but, merely denotes opposition.
 - b) vērum, but, is stronger than sed, but is less frequently used.
 - c) autem, but on the other hand, however, marks a transition. It is always post-positive.

DEFINITION. A post-positive word is one that cannot begin a sentence, but is placed after one or more words.

- d) at, but, is used especially in disputation, to introduce an opposing argument.
- e) atqui means but yet.
- f) tamen, yet, usually stands after the emphatic word, but not always.
- g) vērō, however, indeed, in truth, is always post-positive.

- 2. Note the correlative expressions: -
- non solum (non modo) . . . sed etiam, not only . . . but also;
 non modo non . . . sed ne . . . quidem, not only not, but not
 even; as,—
- non modo tibi non Irascor, sed no reprehendo quidem factum tuum, I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even blame your action.
 - a. But when the sentence has but one verb, and this stands with the second member, non modo may be used for non modo non; as,
 - adsentātio non modo amico sed no libero quidem digna est, flattery is not only (not) worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man.
- 344. Illative Conjunctions. These represent the statement which they introduce as following from or as in conformity with what has preceded.
 - I. a) itaque = and so, accordingly.
 - b) $erg\bar{o} = therefore, accordingly.$
 - c) igitur (regularly post-positive 1) = therefore, accordingly.
 - 2. Igitur is never combined with et, atque, -que, or neque.
- 345. Causal Conjunctions. These denote cause, or give an explanation. They are nam, namque, enim (post-positive), etenim, for.
- **346.** Asyndeton. The conjunction is sometimes omitted between coördinate members, particularly in lively or impassioned. narration. Thus:
 - a) A Copulative Conjunction is omitted; as,
 - avāritia InfInIta, Insatiābilis est, avarice is boundless (and) insatiable;
 - Cn. Pompējō, M. Crassō consulibus, in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey (and) Marcus Crassus.

The conjunction is regularly omitted between the names of consuls when the praenomen (Mārcus, Gāius, etc.) is expressed.

b) An Adversative Conjunction may be omitted; as, rationes defuerunt, übertas orationis non defuit, arguments were lacking, (but) abundance of words was not.

¹ Except in Sallust and Silver Latin.

ADVERBS.

347. I. The following particles, sometimes classed as Conjunctions, are more properly Adverbs:—

etiam, also, even.

quoque (always post-positive), also.

quidem (always post-positive) lays stress upon the preceding word.

It is sometimes equivalent to the English *indeed*, *in fact*, but more frequently cannot be rendered, except by vocal emphasis.

nē . . . quidem means not even; the emphatic word or phrase always stands between; as, nē ille quidem, not even he.

tamen and vērō, in addition to their use as Conjunctions, are often employed as Adverbs.

2. Negatives. Two Negatives are regularly equivalent to an affirmative as in English, as non null, some; but when non, nomo, nihil, numquam, etc., are accompanied by neque... neque, non... non, non modo, or no... quidem, the latter particles simply take up the negation and emphasize it; as,—

habeō hIc nēminem neque amīcum neque cognātum, I have here no one, neither friend nor relative.

non enim praetereundum est ne id quidem, for not even that must be passed by.

a. Haud in Cicerc and Caesar occurs almost exclusively as a modifier of Adjectives and Adverbs, and in the phrase haud sciō an. Later writers use it freely with verbs.

CHAPTER VII. — Word-Order and Sentence-Structure.

A. WORD-ORDER.

348. In the normal arrangement of the Latin sentence the Subject stands at the beginning of the sentence, the Predicate at the end; as,—

Darīus classem quingentārum nāvium comparāvit, Darius got ready a fleet of five hundred ships.

349. But for the sake of emphasis the normal arrangement is often abandoned, and the emphatic word is put at the beginning, less frequently at the end of the sentence; as,—

māgnus in hōc bellō Themistoclēs fuit, GREAT was Themistocles in this war;

aliud iter habēmus nüllum, other course we have NONE.

SPECIAL PRINCIPLES.

- 350. 1. Nouns. A Genitive or other oblique case regularly follows the word upon which it depends. Thus:
 - a) Depending upon a Noun:—

tribūnus plēbis, tribune of the plebs; fīlius rēgis, son of the king; vir māgnī animī, a man of noble spirit.

Yet always senātūs consultum, plēbis scītum.

- b) Depending upon an Adjective: ignārus rērum, ignorant of affairs; dīgnī amīcitiā, worthy of friendship; plūs aequō, more than (what is) fair.
- 2. Appositives. An Appositive regularly follows its Subject; as,—

Philippus, rēx Macedonum, Philip, king of the Macedonians; adsentātiō, vitiōrum adjūtrīx, flattery, promoter of evils.

Yet flūmen Rhēnus, the River Rhine; and always in good prose urbs Rōma, the city Rome.

- 3. The **Vocative** usually follows one or more words; as,—
 Audī, Caesar, hear, Caesar!
- 4. Adjectives. No general law can be laid down for the position of Adjectives. On the whole they precede the noun oftener than they follow it.
 - a. Adjectives of quantity (including numerals) regularly precede their noun; as,—

omnës hominës, all men; septingentae nävës, seven hundred vessels.

- b. Note the force of position in the following: media urbs, the middle of the city; urbs media, the middle city; extrēmum bellum, the end of the war; bellum extrēmum, the last war.
- c Rōmānus and Latīnus regularly follow; as,—
 senātus populusque Rōmānus, the Roman Senate and
 People;
 lūdī Rōmānī, the Roman games;

feriae Latinae, the Latin holidays.

d. When a Noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, a favorite order is: Adjective, Genitive, Noun; as,—summa omnium rērum abundantia, the greatest abundance of all things.

5. Pronouns.

a. The Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns regularly precede the Noun; as,—

hīc homō, this man;

ille homō, that man;

erant duo itinera, quibus itineribus, etc., there were two routes, by which, etc.

qui homo? what sort of a man?

b. But ille in the sense of 'that well known,' 'that famous,' usually stands after its Noun; as,—

testule ille that well-known custom of astracism:

testula illa, that well-known custom of ostracism; Mēdēa illa, that famous Medea.

c. Possessive and Indefinite Pronouns usually follow their Noun; as,—

pater meus, *my father*; homō quīdam, *a certain man*; mulier aliqua, *some woman*.

But for purposes of contrast the Possessive often precedes its Noun; as,—

meus pater, MY father (i.e. as opposed to yours, his, etc.).

d. Where two or more Pronouns occur in the same sentence, the Latin is fond of putting them in close proximity; as,—nisi forte ego vobis cessare videor, unless perchance I seem to you to be doing nothing.

6. Adverbs and Adverbial phrases regularly precede the word they modify; as, —

valdē dīligēns, extremely diligent; saepe dīxī, I have often said; tē jam diū hortāmur, we have long been urging you; paulō post, a little after.

- 7. Prepositions regularly precede the words they govern.
 - a. But limiting words often intervene between the Preposition and its case; as,
 - de communi hominum memoria, concerning the common memory of men;

ad beātē vīvendum, for living happily.

 When a noun is modified by an Adjective, the Adjective is often placed before the preposition; as,—

māgnō in dolōre, in great grief; summā cum laude, with the highest credit; quā dē causā, for which cause; hanc ob rem, on account of this thing.

- c. For Anastrophe, by which a Preposition is put after its case, see § 144, 3.
- 8. Conjunctions. Autem, enim, and ightur regularly stand in the second place in the sentence, but when combined with est or sunt they often stand third; as,—

ita est enim, for so it is.

- 9. Words or Phrases referring to the preceding sentence or to some part of it, regularly stand first; as,—
- id ut audīvit, Coroğram dēmigrāvit, when he heard that (referring to the contents of the preceding sentence), he moved to Corcyra;
- eō cum Caesar vēnisset, timentēs cōnfirmat, when Caesar had come thither (i.e. to the place just mentioned), he encouraged the timid.
- 10. The Latin has a fondness for putting side by side words which are etymologically related; as,—
- ut ad senem senex de senectüte, sic hoc libro ad amicum amicissimus de amicitia scripsi, as I, an old man, wrote to an old man, on old age, so in this book, as a fond friend, I have written to a friend concerning friendship.

- 11. Special rhetorical devices for indicating emphasis are the following:
 - a) Hypérbaton, which consists in the separation of words that regularly stand together; as,
 - septimus mihi Originum liber est in manibus, the seventh book of my 'Origines' is under way;
 - receptő Caesar Öricő proficiscitur, having recovered Oricus, Caesar set out.
 - b) Anaphora, which consists in the repetition of the same word or the same word-order in successive phrases; as,
 - sed plēnī omnēs sunt librī, plēnae sapientium võcēs, plēna exemplōrum vetustās, but ali books are full of it, the voices of sages are full of it, antiquity is full of examples of it.
 - c) Chiásmus, which consists in changing the relative order of words in two antithetical phrases; as,
 - multos defendi, laesi neminem, many have I defended, I have injured no one;
 - horribilem illum diem alis, nöbis faustum, that day dreadful to others, for us fortunate.
 - d) Sýnchysis, or the interlocked arrangement. This is mostly confined to poetry, yet occurs in rhetorical prose, especially that of the Imperial Period; as,
 - simulātam Pompējānārum grātiam partium, pretended interest in the Pompeian party.
- 12. **Metrical Close.** At the end of a sentence certain cadences were avoided; others were much employed. Thus:
 - a) Cadences avoided.

_ ∪ ∪ _ ⊻; as, esse vidētur (close of hexameter).
_ ∪ ∪ ⊻; as, esse potest (close of pentameter).

b) Cadences frequently employed.

__ _ ; as, auxerant.
__ _ _ _ ; as, comprobāvit.
__ _ _ _ _ ; as, esse videātur.
_ _ _ _ _ _ ; as, rogātū tuō.

multõs laesi dēfendī nēminem

 $^{^1}$ So named from a fancied analogy to the strokes of the Greek letter X (chi). Thus:—

B. SENTENCE-STRUCTURE.

- 351. 1. Unity of Subject. In complex sentences the Latin regularly holds to unity of Subject in the different members; as, —
- Caesar primum suō, deinde omnium ex cōnspectū remōtīs equīs, ut aequātō perīculō spem fugae tolleret, cohortātus suōs proelium commīsit, Caesar having first removed his own horse from sight, then the horses of all, in order, by making the danger equal, to take away hope of flight, encouraged his men and joined battle.
- 2. A word serving as the common Subject or Object of the main clause and a subordinate one, stands before both; as,—
- Aeduī cum sē dēfendere non possent, lēgātos ad Caesarem mittunt, since the Aedui could not defend themselves, they sent envoys to Caesar;
- ille etsī flāgrābat bellandī cupiditāte, tamen pācī serviendum putāvit, although he was burning with a desire to fight, yet he thought he ought to aim at peace.
 - a. The same is true also
 - 1) When the Subject of the main clause is Object (Direct or Indirect) of a subordinate clause; as,—
 - Caesar, cum hoc el nuntiatum esset, maturat ab urbe proficisci, when this had been reported to Caesar he hastened to set out from the city.
 - 2) When the Subject of a subordinate clause is at the same time the Object (Direct or Indirect) of the main clause; as,—
 - L. Manliö, cum dictator fuisset, M. Pomponius tribunus plebis diem dixit, M. Pomponius, tribune of the people, instituted proceedings against Lucius Manlius though he had been dictator.
- 3. Of subordinate clauses, temporal, conditional, and adversative clauses more commonly precede the main clause; indirect questions and clauses of purpose or result more commonly follow; as,—
- postquam haec dīxit, profectus est, after he said this, he set out; sī quis ita agat, imprūdēns sit, if any one should act so, he would be devoid of foresight;
- accidit ut una nocte omnes Hermae deicerentur, it happened that in a single night all the Hermae were thrown down.

- 4. Sometimes in Latin the main verb is placed within the sub-ordinate clause; as, —
- sī quid est in mē ingenī, quod sentiō quam sit exiguum, if there is any talent in me, and I know how little it is.
- 5. The Latin Period. The term Period, when strictly used, designates a compound sentence in which the subordinate clauses are inserted within the main clause; as,—
- Caesar etsī intellegēbat quā dē causā ea dīcerentur, tamen, nē aestātem in Trēverīs consumere cogerētur, Indutiomarum ad sē venīre jussit, though Caesar perceived why this was said, yet, lest he should be forced to spend the summer among the Treveri, he ordered Indutiomarus to come to him.

In the Periodic structure the thought is suspended until the end of the sentence is reached. Many Roman writers were extremely fond of this sentence-structure, and it was well adapted to the inflectional character of their language; in English we generally avoid it.

- 6. When there are several subordinate clauses in one Period, the Latin so arranges them as to avoid a succession of verbs. Thus:—
- At hostes cum misseent, qui, quae in castris gererentur, cognoscerent, ubi se déceptos intellexerunt, omnibus copiis subsecuti ad flumen contendunt, but the enemy when they had sent men to learn what was going on in camp, after discovering that they had been outwitted, followed with all their forces and hurried to the river.

CHAPTER VIII. — Hints on Latin Style.

352. In this chapter brief consideration is given to a few features of Latin diction which belong rather to style than to formal grammar.

NOUNS.

353. 1. Where a distinct reference to several persons or things is involved, the Latin is frequently much more exact in the use of the Plural than is the English; as,

domōs eunt, they go home (i.e. to their homes); Germānī corpora cūrant, the Germans care for the body; animōs mīlitum recreat, he renews the courage of the soldiers; diēs noctēsque timēre, to be in a state of fear day and night.

2. In case of Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively, the Latin often employs the Plural where the English uses the Singular; as,—

omnia sunt perdita, everything is lost; quae cum ita sint, since this is so; haec omnibus pervulgāta sunt, this is very well known to all.

3. The Latin is usually more concrete than the English, and especially less bold in the personification of abstract qualities. Thus:—

ā puerō, ā puerīs, from boyhood; Sullā dictātōre, in Sulla's dictatorship;

mē duce, under my leadership;

Rômānī cum Carthāginiēnsibus pācem fēcērunt = Rome made peace with Carthage;

liber doctrīnae plēnus = a learned book;

prüdentiä Themistoclis Graecia serväta est = Themistocles's foresight saved Greece.

4. The Nouns of Agency in -tor and -sor (see § 147, 1) denote a permanent or characteristic activity; as,—

accūsātōrēs (professional) accusers; ōrātōrēs, pleaders; cantōrēs, singers;

Arminius, Germaniae liberator, Arminius, liberator of Germany.

 a. To denote single instances of an action, other expressions are commonly employed; as,—

Numa, qui Rōmulō successit, Numa, successor of Romulus; qui mea legunt, my readers; qui mē audiunt, my auditors.

- 5. The Latin avoids the use of prepositional phrases as modifiers of a Noun. In English we say: 'The war against Carthage'; 'a journey through Gaul'; 'cities on the sea'; 'the book in my hands'; 'the fight at Salamis'; etc. The Latin in such cases usually employs another mode of expression. Thus:
 - a) A Genitive; as, —

dolor injuriarum, resentment at injuries.

- b) An Adjective; as, —
 urbēs maritimae, cities on the sea;
 pūgna Salamīnia, the fight at Salamis.
- c) A Participle; as,—
 pūgna ad Cannās facta, the battle at Cannae.
- d) A Relative clause; as, —
 liber quī in meīs manibus est, the book in my hands.

Note. — Yet within certain limits the Latin does employ Prepositional phrases as Noun modifiers. This is particularly frequent when the governing noun is derived from a verb. The following are typical examples:—

trānsitus in Britanniam, the passage to Britain; excessus ē vītā, departure from life; odium ergā Rōmānōs, hatred of the Romans; liber dē senectūte, the book on old age; amor in patriam, love for one's country.

ADJECTIVES.

- 354. I. Special Latin Equivalents for English Adjectives are
 - a) A Genitive; as, —
 virtūtēs animī = moral virtues;
 dolorēs corporis = bodily ills.
 - b) An Abstract Noun; as, —
 novitās reī = the strange circumstance;
 asperitās viārum = rough roads.
 - e) Hendiadys (see § 374, 4); as,—
 ratiō et ōrdō = systematic order;
 ārdor et impetus = eager onset.
 - d) Sometimes an Adverb; as,—
 omnēs circā populī, all the surrounding tribes;
 suōs semper hostēs, their perpetual foes.
- 2. Often a Latin Noun is equivalent to an English Noun modified by an Adjective; as, —

doctrina, theoretical knowledge;
oppidum, walled town;

prüdentia, practical knowledge; libellus, little book

3. Adjectives are not used in immediate agreement with proper names; but an Adjective may limit vir, homō, ille, or some other word used as an Appositive of a proper name; as,—

Socrates, homo sapiens = the wise Socrates; Scīpio, vir fortissimus = the doughty Scipio; Syrācūsae, urbs praeclārissima = famous Syracuse.

4. An Adjective may be equivalent to a Possessive Genitive; as, — pastor regius, the shepherd of the king; tumultus servilis, the uprising of the slaves.

PRONOUNS.

- 355. In Compound Sentences the Relative Pronoun has a fondneed for connecting itself with the subordinate clause rather than the main one; as,—
- ā quō cum quaererētur, quid māximē expedīret, respondit, when it was asked of him what was best, he replied. (Less commonly, quī, cum ab eō quaererētur, respondit.)
- 2. Uterque, ambō. Uterque means each of two; ambō means both; as,—
- uterque frater abiit, each of the two brothers departed (i.s. separately);
- ambo fratres abierunt, i.e. the two brothers departed together.
 - a. The Plural of uterque occurs
 - With Nouns used only in the Plural (see § 56); as, in utrīsque castrīs, in each camp.
 - 2) Where there is a distinct reference to two groups of persons or things; as,—
 - utrīque ducēs clārī fuērunt, the generals on each side (several in number) were famous.

VERBS.

- 356. 1. In case of Defective and Deponent Verbs a Passive is supplied:
 - a) By the corresponding verbal Nouns in combination with esse, etc.; as,—

in odiō sumus, we are hated; in invidiā sum, I am envied;

admirātionī est, he is admired;
oblīvione obruitur, he is forgotten (lit. is overwhelmed by oblivion);

in usu esse, to be used.

- b) By the Passive of Verbs of related meaning. Thus: agitārī as Passive of persequī; temptārī as Passive of adorīrī.
- 2. The lack of the Perfect Active Participle in Latin is supplied
 - a) Sometimes by the Perfect Passive Participle of the Deponent;
 as, —
 adhortātus, having exhorted;
 veritus, having feared.
 - b) By the Ablative Absolute; as, hostium agrīs vāstātīs Caesar exercitum redūxit, having ravaged the country of the enemy, Caesar led back his army.
 - c) By subordinate clauses; as,
 - e6 cum advēnisset, castra posuit, having arrived there, he pitched a camp;
 - hostes qui in urbem irruperant, the enemy having burst into the city.
- 3. The Latin agrees with English in the stylistic employment of the Second Person Singular in an indefinite sense (= 'one'). Cf. the English 'You can drive a horse to water, but you can't make him drink.' But in Latin this use is mainly confined to certain varieties of the Subjunctive, especially the Potential (§ 280), Jussive (§ 275), Deliberative (§ 277), and the Subjunctive in conditional sentences of the sort included under § 302, 2, and 303. Examples:—

videres, vou could see;

ūtāre vīribus use your strength;

quid hoc homine facias, what are you to do with this man?

- mens quoque et animus, nisi tamquam lüminī oleum īnstīllēs exstinguuntur senectūte, the intellect and mind too are extinguished by old age, unless, so to speak, you keep pouring oil into the lamp;
- tanto amore possessiones suas amplexi tenebant, ut ab eis membra divelli citius posse diceres, they clung to their possessions with such an affectionate embrace, that you would have said their limbs could sooner be torn from their bodies.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

357. 1. To denote 'so many years, etc., afterwards or before' the Latin employs not merely the Ablative of Degree of Difference with post and ante (see § 223), but has other forms of expression. Thus:—

post quinque annos, five years afterward;

paucos ante dies, a few days before;

ante quadriennium, four years before;

post diem quartum quam ab urbe discessimus, four days after we left the city;

ante tertium annum quam decesserat, three years before he had died.

2. The Latin seldom combines both Subject and Object with the same Infinitive; as, —

Römānos Hannibalem vīcisse constat.

Such a sentence would be ambiguous, and might mean either that the Romans had conquered Hannibal, or that Hannibal had conquered the Romans. Perspicuity was gained by the use of the Passive Infinitive; as,—

Rômānos ab Hannibale victos esse constat, it is well established that the Romans were defeated by Hannibal.

PECULIARITIES IN CONNECTION WITH THE USE OF THE DATIVE.

- 358. 1. The English for does not always correspond to a Dative notion in Latin, but is often the equivalent of pro with the Ablative, viz. in the senses
 - a) In defense of; as,—
 pro patria morī, to die for one's country.
 - b) Instead of, in behalf of; as,—
 ünus prō omnibus dīxit, one spoke for all.
 haec prō lēge dicta sunt, these things were said in behalf
 of the law.
 - c) In proportion to; as, pro multitudine hominum, in proportion to the population.

- 2. Similarly, English to when it indicates motion is rendered in Latin by ad.
 - a. Note, however, that the Latin may say either scribere ad aliquem, or scribere alicui, according as the idea of motion is or is not predominant. So in several similar expressions.
- 3. In the poets, verbs of mingling with, contending with, sometimes take the Dative. This construction is a Grecism. Thus:—

se miscet viris, he mingles with the men; contendis Homero, you contend with Homer.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE GENITIVE.

359. I. The Possessive Genitive gives emphasis to the possessor, the Dative of Possessor emphasizes the fact of possession; as,—

hortus patris est, the garden is my father's; mihi hortus est, I possess a garden.

- 2. The Latin can say either stult or stultum est dicere, it is foolish to say; but Adjectives of one ending permit only the Genitive; as,—
- sapientis est haec secum reputare, it is the part of a wise man to consider this.

PART VI.

PROSODY.

- 360. Prosody treats of metres and versification.
- 361. Latin Verse. Latin Poetry was essentially different in character from English. In our own language poetry is based upon accent, and poetical form consists essentially in a certain succession of accented and unaccented syllables. Latin poetry, on the other hand, was based not upon accent, but upon quantity, so that with the Romans poetical form consisted in a certain succession of long and short syllables, i.e. of long and short intervals of time.

This fundamental difference in the character of English and Latin poetry is a natural result of the difference in character of the two languages. English is a strongly accented language in which quantity is relatively subordinate. Latin, on the other hand, was a quantitative language, in which accent was relatively subordinate.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS AND SYLLABLES.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

- 362. The general principles for the quantity of vowels and syllables have been given above in § 5. The following peculiarities are to be noted here:—
- 1. A vowel is usually short when followed by another vowel (\S 5. A. 2), but the following exceptions occur: \longrightarrow

- a) In the Genitive termination -īus (except alterĭus); as, illīus, tōtīus. Yet the i may be short in poetry; as, illīus, tōtĭus.
- b) In the Genitive and Dative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diel, aciel. But fidel, rel, spel (§ 52, 1).
- c) In fio, excepting fit and forms where i is followed by er.
 Thus: fiobam, fiat, ffunt; but fieri, fierem.
- d) În a few other words, especially words derived from the Greek; as, dīus, Aenēās, Darēus, hērēes, etc.
- 2. A diphthong is usually long (§ 5. B. 2), but the preposition prae in composition is often shortened before a vowel; as, praeaoūtus.
- 3. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants (§ 5. B. 2) is long, even when one of the consonants is in the following word; as, terret populum. Occasionally the syllable is long when both consonants are in the following word; as, prō segete spīcās.
- 4. A vowel before j is regularly long, but is short in compounds of jugum; as, bijugis, quadrijugis.
- 5. Compounds of jacio, though written inicit, adicit, etc., have the first syllable long, as though written inj-, adj-. The actual pronunciation of such words is not clear. Reicio has 8.

Quantity of Final Syllables.

A. Final Syllables ending in a Vowel.

- 363. 1. Final a is mostly short, but is long in the following situations:
 - a) In the Ablative Singular of the First Declension; as, portā.
 - b) In the Imperative; as, laudā.
 - c) In indeclinable words (except ită, quiă); as, trīgintā, contrā, posteā, intereā, etc.
 - 2. Final e is usually short, but is long
 - a) In the Ablative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diē, rē; hence hodiē, quārē. Here belongs also famē (§ 59. 2. b).
 - b) In the Imperative of the Second Conjugation; as, monē,
 habē, etc.; yet occasionally cavě, valě.
 - c) In Adverbs derived from Adjectives of the Second Declension, along with ferē and fermē. Benĕ, malĕ, temerĕ, saepĕ have e.
 - d) In ē, dē, mē, tē, sē, nē (not, lest), nē (verily).

- 3. Final i is usually long, but is short in nis and quas. Mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi, have regularly I, but sometimes I; yet always ibīdem, ibīque, ubīque.
 - 4. Final o is regularly long, but is short
 - a) In egŏ, duŏ, modŏ (only), citŏ.
 - b) Rarely in the First Person Singular of the Verb, and in Nominatives of the Third Declension; as, amo, leo.
 - c) In a few compounds beginning with the Preposition pro; as, profundere, proficisci, profugere.
 - 5. Final u is always long.

B. Final Syllables ending in a Consonant.

- 364. I. Final syllables ending in any other consonant than s are short. The following words, however, have a long vowel: sāl, sōl, Lār, pār, vōr, fūr, dīc, dūc, lāc, ōn, nōn, quīn, sīn, sīc, cūr, hīc¹ (this). Also adverbs in c; as, hīc, hūc, istīc, illūc, etc.
 - 2. Final syllables in -as are long; as, terrās, amās.
 - 3. Final syllables in -es are regularly long, but are short
 - a) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of dental stems (§ 33) of the Third Declension which have a short penult in the Genitive; as, segĕs (segetis), obsĕs (obsidis), mīlĕs, dīvĕs. But a few have -ēs; viz. pēs, ariēs, abiēs, pariēs.
 - b) In ĕs (thou art), penĕs.
- 4. Final -os is usually long, but short in ŏs (ossis), compŏs, impŏs.
 - 5. Final -is is usually short, but is long
 - a) In Plurals; as, portīs, hortīs, nobīs, vobīs, nūbīs (Acc.).
 - b) In the Nominative Singular of Nouns of the Third Declension with long vowel in the Penult of the Genitive; as, Samnīs (-ītis).
 - c) In the Second Person Singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation; as, audis.
 - d) In vis, force; is, thou goest; fis; sis; velis; nölis; vis, thou wilt; (māvis, quamvis, quivis, etc.).
 - 6. Final -us is usually short, but is long
 - a) In the Genitive Singular and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural of the Fourth Declension; as, frūctūs.

- b) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of those nouns of the Third Declension in which the u belongs to the stem; as, palūs (-ūdis), servitūs (-ūtis), tellūs (-ūris).
- 365. Greek Nouns retain in Latin their original quantity; as, Aenēā, epitomē, Dēlos, Pallas, Simoīs, Salamīs, Dīdūs, Paridī, āēr, aethēr, crātēr, hērōās. Yet Greek nouns in -ωρ regularly shorten the vowel; as, rhētŏr, Hectŏr.

VERSE-STRUCTURE.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

- **366.** I. The metrical unit in versification is a short syllable, technically called a mora (∪). A long syllable (_) is regarded as equivalent to two morae.
- 2. A Foot is a group of syllables. The following are the most important kinds of feet: $\,$

FEET OF THREE MORAE.	FEET OF FOUR MORAE.
_ U Trochee.	_ ∪ ∪ Dactyl.

- 3. A Verse is a succession of feet.
- 4. The different kinds of verses are named Trochaic, Iambic, Dactylic, Anapaestic, according to the foot which forms the basis of their structure.
- 5. Iotus. In every foot the long syllable naturally receives the greater prominence. This prominence is called iotus. It is denoted thus: $\angle \cup \cup$; $\angle \cup$.
- 6. Thesis and Arsis. The syllable which receives the ictus is called the thesis; the rest of the foot is called the arsis.
- 7. Elision. Final syllables ending in a vowel, a diphthong, or -m are regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or h. In reading, we ordinarily omit the elided syllable entirely. Probably the ancients slurred the words together in some way. This may be indicated as follows: corpore in tino; multum ille et; monstrum horrendum; causae trarum.
 - a. Omission of elision is called **hiatus**. It occurs especially before and after monosyllabic Interjections; as, **Ö** et praesidium.

¹ Ictus was not accent, — neither stress accent nor musical accent, — but was simply the quantitative prominence inherent in a long syllable.

- 8. The ending of a word within a foot is called a caesura (cutting). Every verse usually has one prominent caesura. The ending of a word and foot together within the verse is called a diaeresis.
- 9. Verses are distinguished as Catalectic or Acatalectic. A Catalectic verse is one in which the last foot is not complete, but lacks one or more syllables; an Acatalectic verse has its last foot complete.
- 10. At the end of a verse a slight pause occurred. Hence the final syllable may be either long or short (syllaba anceps), and may terminate in a vowel or m, even though the next verse begins with a vowel.
- as dimeter, trimeter, tetrameter, according to the number of dipodies (pairs of feet) which they contain. Dactylic verses are measured by single feet, and are designated as tetrameter, pentameter, hexameter, accordingly.

SPECIAL PECULIARITIES.

367. 1. Synizēsis (Synaeresis). Two successive vowels in the interior of a word are often united into a long syllable; as,—

aureïs, deinde, anteïre, deesse.

- Diastole. A syllable usually short is sometimes long; as, vidēt, audīt.
- 3. Systole. A syllable usually long is sometimes short; as,—
 stetěrunt.
 - a. Diastole and Systole are not mere arbitrary processes. They usually represent an earlier pronunciation which had passed out of vogue in the ordinary speech.
- 4. After a consonant, i and u sometimes become j and v. The preceding syllable then becomes long; as,—

abjete for abiete; genva for genua.

- Sometimes v becomes u; as, —
 silua for silva; dissoluō for dissolvō.
- 6. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable. Such a verse is called an **Hypermeter**. The extra syllable ends in a vowel or -m, and is united with the initial vowel or h of the next verse by **Synapheia**. Thus:—

.... ignārī hominumque locōrumque errāmus.

7. Tmesis (cutting). Compound words are occasionally separated into their elements; as,—

quo me cunque rapit tempestas, for quocunque, etc.

8. Syncope. A short vowel is sometimes dropped between two consonants; as,—
repostus for repositus.

THE DACTYLIC HEXAMETER.

368. I. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. But in all the feet except the fifth a spondee (___) may take the place of the dactyl. The sixth foot may be either a spondee or a trochee, since the final syllable of a verse may be either long or short (syllaba anceps). The following represents the scheme of the verse:—

$$\angle \infty$$
, $\angle \infty$, $\angle \infty$, $\angle \infty$, $\angle \omega$, $\angle \omega$.

2. Sometimes we find a spondee in the fifth foot. Such verses are called Spondaic. A dactyl usually stands in the fourth place, and the fifth and sixth feet are generally made up of a quadrisyllable; as,—

armātumque aurō circumspicit Ōrīōna cāra deūm subolēs, māgnum Jovis incrēmentum.

3. Caesura.

- a) The favorite position of the caesura in the Dactylic Hexameter is after the thesis of the third foot; as,
 - arma virumque oano || Trojae qui primus ab oris.
- b) Less frequently the caesura occurs after the thesis of the fourth foot, usually accompanied by another in the second foot; as,—

Inde torō \parallel pater Aenēās \parallel sīc ōrsus ab altō est.

- c) Sometimes the caesura occurs between the two short syllables of the third foot; as,—
 - O passī graviora || dabit deus hīs quoque finem.

This caesura is called Feminine as opposed to the caesura after a long syllable, which is called Masculine (as under a and b).

d) A pause sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot. This is called the Bucolic Diaeresis, as it was borrowed by the Romans from the Bucolic poetry of the Greeks. Thus: sõlstitium pecorī dēfendite; || jam venit aestās.

DACTYLIC PENTAMETER.

369. I. The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts, each of which contains two dactyls, followed by a long syllable. Spondees may take the place of the dactyls in the first part, but not in the second. The long syllable at the close of the first half of the verse always ends a word. The scheme is the following:—

2. The Pentameter is never used alone, but only in connection with the Hexameter. The two arranged alternately form the so-called Elegiac Distich. Thus:—

Vergilium vīdī tantum, nec amāra Tibullō Tempus amīcitiae fāta dedēre meae.

IAMBIC MEASURES.

370. I. The most important Iambic verse is the Iambic Trimeter (§ 366, 11) called also Senarius. This is an acatalectic verse. It consists of six Iambi. Its pure form is:—

The Caesura usually occurs in the third foot; less frequently in the fourth.

- 2. In place of the Iambus, a Tribrach $(\cup \cup \cup)$ may stand in any foot but the last. In the odd feet (first, third, and fifth) may stand a Spondee, Dactyl, or Anapaest, though the last two are less frequent. Sometimes a Proceleusmatic $(\cup \cup \cup \cup)$ occurs.
- 3. In the Latin comic writers, Plautus and Terence, great freedom is permitted, and the various equivalents of the Iambus, viz. the Dactyl, Anapaest, Spondee, Tribrach, Proceleusmatic, are freely admitted in any foot except the last.

SUPPLEMENTS TO THE GRAMMAR.

I. JULIAN CALENDAR.

- 371. I. The names of the Roman months are: Jānuārius, Februārius, Mārtius, Aprīlis, Māius, Jūnius, Jūlius (Quīntīlis¹ prior to 46 B.C.), Augustus (Sextīlis¹ before the Empire), September, Octōber, November, December. These words are properly Adjectives in agreement with mēnsis understood.
 - 2. Dates were reckoned from three points in the month:
 - a) The Calends, the first of the month.
 - b) The Nones, usually the fifth of the month, but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.
 - c) The Ides, usually the thirteenth of the month, but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.
- 3. From these points dates were reckoned backward; consequently all days after the Ides of any month were reckoned as so many days before the Calends of the month next following.
- 4. The day before the Calends, Nones, or Ides of any month is designated as prīdiē Kalendās, Nonās, Īdūs. The second day before was designated as diē tertio ante Kalendās, Nonās, etc. Similarly the third day before was designated as diē quārto, and so on. These designations, of course, are arithmetically inaccurate, but the Romans reckoned both ends of the series.
- 5. In indicating dates, the name of the month is added in the form of an Adjective agreeing with **Kalendās**, **Nonās**, **Īdūs**. Various forms of expression occur, of which that given under d) is most common:
 - a) die quinto ante Idus Martias;
 - d) quīntō ante Īdūs Mārtiās;
 - c) quinto (V) Idus Mārtiās;
 - d) ante diem quintum (V) Īdūs Mārtiās.

1

¹ Originally the Roman year began with March. This explains the names Quintilis, Sextilis, September, etc., fifth month, sixth month, etc.

6. These designations may be treated as nouns and combined with the prepositions in, ad, ex; as,—

ad ante diem IV Kalendas Octobres, up to the 28th of September. ex ante diem quintum Idus Octobres, from the 11th of October.

7. In leap year the 25th was reckoned as the extra day in February. The 24th was designated as ante diem VI Kalendās Mārtiās, and the 25th as ante diem bis VI Kal. Mārt.

372.

CALENDAR.

Days of the Month.	March, Oc	May, July, tober.	January, August, December.		April, June, September, November.		February.	
ı	KALEN	DĪS.	KALENDĪS.		KALENDIS.		Kalendīs.	
2	VI.	Nonās.	IV.	Nonās.	IV.	Nonās.	IV.	Nonās.
3	v.	**	III.	"	III.	"	III.	44
4	IV.	"	Prīdiē Nonās.		Prīdiē Nonās.		Prīdiē Nonās.	
5	III.	44	Nonīs.		Nonis,		Nonis.	
6	Prīdiē	Nōnās.	VIII.	Īdūs.	VIII.	Īdūs.	VIII.	Īdūs.
7	Nōnīs.		VII.	"	VII.	"	VII.	"
8	VIII.	Īdūs.	VI.	"	VI.	"	VI.	"
9	VII.	"	v.	"	v.	"	v.	"
ΙÓ	VI.	"	IV.	**	IV.	u	IV.	"
11	v.	"	III.	"	III.	"	III.	**
12	IV.	"	Prīdiē Ī	dūs.	Prīdiē	Īdūs.	Prīdiē Īdūs.	
13	III.	"	ĪDIBUS.				ĪDIBUS.	
14	Prīdiē	Īdūs.	XIX. Kalend.		XVIII. Kalend.		XVI.	Kalend.
15	ĪDIBUS	•	XVIII.	"	XVII.	"	XV.	"
16	XVII.	Kalend.	XVII.	44	XVI.	"	XIV.	.44
17	XVI.	"	XVI.	**	xv.	"	XIII.	"
18	xv.	"	xv.	**	XIV.	"	XII.	"
19	XIV.	"	XIV.	"	XIII.	"	XI.	**
20	XIII.	**	XIII.	44	XII.	**	x.	11
21	XII.	"	XII.	44	XI.	"	IX.	11
22	XI.	"	XI.	44	X.	"	VIII.	44
23	X.	"	x.	"	IX.	"	VII.	**
24	IX.	"	IX.	"	VIII.	"	VI.	"
25	VIII.	"	VIII.	"	VII.	"	V. (VI.) "
26	VII.	**	VII.	"	VI.	"	IV. (V.	
27	VI.	"	VI.	"	v.	44	III. (IV	•
28	v.	"	v.	"	IV.	"	,	.(III. Kal.)
29	iv.	44	IV.	"	III.	44		rid. Kal.)
30	III.	**	III.	"	Prīdiē Kalend. (Enclosed forms a		•	
31	Pridie Kalend.		Prīdiē F	Kalend.	for leap-ye			

II. ABBREVIATIONS OF PROPER NAMES.

373. A. = Aulus.Mam. = Māmercus. App. = Appius. $N_{\cdot} = Numerius$. C. = Gāius. P. = Pūblius. Cn. = Gnaeus. O. = Quintus.D. = Decimus. Sex. = Sextus. $K_{\cdot} = Kaeso$. Ser. = Servius. L. = Lūcius. Sp. = Spurius.M. = Mārcus. T. = Titus. M' = Manius.Ti. = Tiberius.

III. FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC.

A. Figures of Syntax.

- 374. I. Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words; as,—sed enim audierat, but (she was afraid), for she had heard, etc.
- 2. Brachýlogy is a brief or condensed form of expression; as, ut ager sine cultūrā frūctuōsus esse non potest, sīc sine doctrīnā animus, as a field cannot be productive without cultivation, so the mind (cannot be productive) without learning.

Special varieties of Brachylogy are -

- a) Zeugma, in which one verb is made to stand for two; as, —
 minīs aut blandīmentīs corrupta, = (terrified) by threats
 or corrupted by flattery.
- b) Compendiary Comparison, by which a modifier of an object is mentioned instead of the object itself; as, dissimilis erat Charēs eōrum et factīs et mōribus, lit. Chares was different from their conduct and character, i.e. Chares's conduct and character were different, etc.
- 3. Pléonasm is an unnecessary fullness of expression; as,—
 prius praedīcam, lit. I will first say in advance.
- 4. Hendíadys ($\ell\nu$ διὰ δυοῦν, one through two) is the use of two nouns joined by a conjunction, in the sense of a noun modified by a Genitive or an Adjective; as,—

febris et aestus, the heat of fever; celeritate cursuque, by swift running.

- 5. **Prolépsis**, or **Anticipation**, is the introduction of an epithet in advance of the action which makes it appropriate; as,—
- submersās obrue puppēs, lit. overwhelm their submerged ships, i.e. overwhelm and sink their ships.
 - a. The name Prolepsis is also applied to the introduction of a noun or pronoun as object of the main clause where we should expect it to stand as subject of a subordinate clause. Thus:
 - nosti Marcellum quam tardus sit, you know how slow Marcellus is (lit. you know Marcellus, how slow he is). Both varieties of Prolepsis are chiefly confined to poetry.
- 6. Anacolúthon is a lack of grammatical consistency in the construction of the sentence; as, —
- tum Anci filii . . . impēnsius eis indignitās crēscere, then the sons of Ancus . . . their indignation increased all the more.
- 7. **Hýsteron Próteron** consists in the inversion of the logical order of two words or phrases; as,—
- moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus = let us rush into the midst of arms and die.

B. Figures of Rhetoric.

375. 1. Littotes is the use of two negatives for an emphatic affirmative; as,—

haud parum labōris, no little toil (i.e. much toil); nōn ignōrō, I am not ignorant (i.e. I am well aware).

- 2. Oxymóron is the combination of contradictory conceptions; as,—
 sapiēns Insānia, wise folly.
- 3. Alliteration is the employment of a succession of words presenting frequent repetition of the same letter (mostly initial); as, sēnsim sine sēnsū aetās senēscit.
- 4. Onomatopéia is the suiting of sound to sense; as,—
 quadrupedante putrem sonitū quatit ungula campum, 'And shake
 with horny hoofs the solid ground.'

INDEX TO THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS.

NOTE.—Compounds are not given unless they present some special irregularity. The references are to sections.

A.

abdő. 122. I. 2. abiciō, 122, III. abnuō, 122, II. aboleō, 121, I. abstergeo, 121, III. absum, 125. accendo, 122, I, 4. accidit, 138, III. acciō, 121, I, N. accipio, 122, III. acquirō, 122, I, 6. acuō, 122, II. addō, 122, I, 2, adhaerēscō. 122. IV. 2. adipîscor, 122, V. adolēsco, 122, IV, 1. adsum, 125. advenio. 123, IV. afferō, 120. afficiō, 122, III. afflīgō, 122, I, I, a. agnöscö, 122, IV, I. agō, 122, I, 3. algeō, 121, III. alo, 122, I, 5. amicio, 123, III. amō, 120, I. amplector, 122, V. angō, 122, I, 7. aperiō, 123, II. appeto, 122, I, 6. arceo, 121, II, a. arcesso, 122, I, 6. ārdeō. 121. III. ārēscō, 122, IV, 2. arguō, 122, II.

ascendō, 122, I, 4. aspiciō, 122, III. assentior, 123, VII. assuēfaciō, 122, III. assuēfīō, 122, III. audiō, 123, I. auferō, 129. augeō, 121, III. aveō, 121, III.

C.

cadō, 122, I, 2. caedō, 122, I, 2. calefacio, 122, III. calefiō. 122. III. caleo, 121, II, a. calēscō, 122, IV, 2. canō, 122, I, 2. capesso, 122, I, 6. capiō, 122, III. careō, 121, II. a. carpō, 122, I, I, a. caveō, 121, V. cēdō, 122, I, 1, 6. cēnseō, 121, II, b. cernő, 122, I. 6. cieō, 121, I. cingō, 122, I, 1, a. circumsisto, 122, I, 2. claudō, 122, I, I, b. claudō, 122, I, 7. coëmō, 122, I, 3. соері, 133. coërceo, 121, II, a. cognosco, 122, IV, 1. cogo, 122, I, 3. colligo, 122, I, 3.

colō, 122, I, 5. comminiscor, 122, V. comperio, 123, V. compleo, 121, I. concutio, 122, III. condō, 122, I, 2, confero, 129. confiteor, 121, VII. congruo, 122, II. consenesco, 122, IV. 2. consero, 122, I, 5. consero. 122. I. 6 (plant). consido, 122, I, 4. consisto, 122, I, 2, conspicio, 122, III. constat, 138, III. constituo, 122, II. consuesco, 122, IV, 1. consulo, 122, I, 5. contineo, 121, II, b. contingit, 138, III. coquō, 122, I, I, a. crepõ, 120, II. crēscō, 122, IV, 1. cubō, 120, II. cupiō, 122, III. curro, 122, I, 2.

D.

dēbeō, 121, II, a. dēcernō, 122, I, 6. decet, 138, II. dēdecet, 138, II. dēdō, 122, I, 2. dēfendō, 122, I, 4. dēleō, 121, I. dēloō, 122, I, 3.

dēmō, 122, I, 3. dēserō, 122, I, 5. dēsinō, 122, I, 6. dēsum, 125. dīcō, 122, I, I, a. differo, 129. dīligō, 122, I, 3. dīmicō, 120, II. dirimō, 122, I, 3. dīripiō, 122, III. dīruō, 122, II. discerno, 122, I, 6. disco, 122, IV. 1. disserō, 122, I, 5. distinguo, p. 87, footnote, dīvidō, 122, I, I, b. dō, 127. doceō, 121, II, b. doleō, 121, II, a. domö, 120, II. dūcō, 122, I, 1, a.

E.

ēdō, 122, I, 2. edō, 122, I, 3. efferō, 129. effugiō, 122, III. egeō, 121, II, a, N. 1. ēliciō, 122, III. ēmineō, 121, II, a, N. 1. emō, 122, I, 3. eō. 132. ēsuriō, 123, VI. ēvādō, p. 87, footnote. ēvānēscō, 122, IV, 3. excolo, 122, I, 5. excudo, 122, I, 4. exerceo, 121, II, a. experior, 123, VII. expleo. 121, I. N. explico, 120, II. exstinguo, p. 87, footnote. extimēsco, 122, IV, 2.

F.

faciō, 122, III. fallō, 122, I, 2. fateor, 121, VII. faveō, 121, V. feriō, 123, VI. ferō, 129. ferveo. 121, VI. fīgō, 122, I, 1, b. findō, 122, I, 2, N. fingō, 122, I, I, a. fiō, 131. flecto, 122, I, I, b. fleö. 121. I. floreo, 121, II, a, N. 1. fluo, 122, II. flörēscö, 122, IV, 2. fodiō, 122, III. foveo, 121, V. frango, 122, I, 3. fremo, 122, I, 5. fricō. 120. II. frīgeō, 121, II, a, N. 2. fruor, 122, V. fugiō, 122, III. fulcio, 123, III. fulgeo, 121, III. fulget, 138, I. fundō, 122, I, 3, fungor, 122, V. furō, 122, I, 7.

G.

gemō, 122, I, 5. gerō, 122, I, 1, a. gignō, 122, I, 5. gradior, 122, V.

H.

habeō, 121, II, a. haereō, 121, III. hauriō, 123, III. horreō, 121, II, a, N. 1.

I.

Ignōscō, 122, IV, 1. illiciō, 122, III. imbuō, 122, III. imbuō, 122, II. immineō, 121, II, a, N. 2. impleō, 121, I, N. impleō, 120, II. incipiō, 122, III. incolō, 122, II. incolō, 122, I, 5. incumbō, 122, I, 5. indugeō, 121, III. induō, 122, II. inferō, 122, II. inferō, 122, II.

ingemīscō, 122, IV, 2. īnsum, 125. intellegō, 122, I, 3. interficiō, 122, III. intersum, 125. invādō, p. 87, footnote. inveniō, 123, IV. īrāscor, 122, V.

J.

jaceō, 121, II, a. jaciō, 122, III. jubeō, 121, III. jungō, 122, I, 1, a. juvō, 120, III.

L.

lābor, 122, V. lacesso, 122, I, 6. laedō, 122, I, I, b. lambō, 122, I, 7. largior, 123, VII. lateo, 121, II, a, N. I. lavō, 120, III. lego, 122, I, 3. libet, 138, II. liceor, 121, VII. licet, 138, II. loquor, 122, V. lūceō, 121, III. lūdō, 122, I, I, b. lugeō, 121, III. luō, 122, II.

M.

maereō, 121, II, a, N. 2.
mālō, 130.
maneō, 121, III.
mātūrēscō, 122, IV, 3.
medeor, 121, VII.
meminī, 133.
mereō, 121, II, a.
mereor, 121, VII.
mergō, 122, I, 1, b.
mētior, 123, VII.
metuō, 122, II.
miuō, 120, II.
minuō, 122, II.

miseret, 138, II. misereor, 121, VII. mittō, 122, I, 1, b. molō, 122, I, 5. moneō, 121, II. a. mordeō, 121, IV. morior, 122, V. moveō, 121, V.

N.

nancīscor, 122, V. nāscor, 122, V. nectō, 122, I, 1, b. neglegō, 122, I, 3. ningit, 138, I. niteō, 121, II, a, N. 1. nītor, 122, V. noceō, 121, II, a. nōlō, 130. nōscō, 122, IV, 1. nūbō, 122, I, 1, a.

Ο.

obdūrēsco, 122, IV, 3. oblino, 122, I, 6. obliviscor, 122, V. obműtéscő, 122, IV, 3. obruō, 122, II. obsolēsco, 122, IV. 1. obsum, 125. obtineo, 121, II, b. õdī, 133. offerō, 129. oleō, 121, II, a, N. I. operio, 123, II. oportet, 138, II. opperior, 123, VII. ordior, 123, VII. orior, 123, VII.

P.

paenitet, 138, II. palleō, 121, II, a, N. 1. pandō, 122, I, 4. parcō, 122, I, 2. pārcō, 121, II, a. pariō, 122, III. pāscō, 122, IV, 1. pāscot, 122, IV, 1.

patefacio, 122, III. patefio, 122, II. pateo, 121, II, a, N. 1. patior, 122, V. paveō, 121, V. pellicio, 122, III. pello, 122, I, 2. pendeö, 121, IV. pendō, 122, I. 2. perago, 122, I, 3. percello, 122, I, 2, N. percrebresco, 122, IV, 3. perdō, 122, I, 2. perficio, 122, III. perfringo, 122, 3. perfruor 122, V perlego, 122, I, 3. permulceo, 121 III. perpetior 122, V. pervado, p. 87, footnote. peto, 122, I, 6. piget, 138, II. pingō, 122, I, 1, a. placeō, 121, II, a. plaudō, 122, I, I, b. pluit, 138, I. polleō, 121, II, a, N. 2. polliceor, 121, VII. poliuo, 122, II. pōnō, 122, I, 6. poscō, 122, IV, 1. possidō, 122, I, 4. possum, 126. pōtō, 120, I. praebeō, 121, II, a. praestat, 138, III. praesum, 125. prandeō, 121, VI. prehendo, 122, I, 4. premo, 122, I, 1, 6. prodo, 122, I. 2. promo, 122, I, 3. prosum, 125. prösternö, 122, I, 6. pudet, 138, II. pungō, 122, I, 2.

Q.

quaerō, 122, I, 6. quatiō, 122, III. queror, 122, V. quiesco, 122, IV. 1.

R. rādō. 122. I. 1. b. rapiō, 122, III. reddō, 122, I. 2. redimō, 122, I, 3. refercio, 123, III. referō, 129. refert, 138, II. rego, 122, I, I, a. relinquo, 122, I, 3, reminîscor, 122, V. reor, 121, VII. reperiö, 123 V. rēpō, 122, l, 1, a. resistō, 122, I, 2. respuō, 122, II. restinguo, p. 87, footnote. retineo, 121, II. b. rīdeō, 121, III. rōdō, 122, I, 1, b. rubeo, 121, II, a, N. 1. rumpō, 122, I, 3. ruō, 122, II.

S.

saepiō, 123, III. saliō, 123, II. sanciō, 123, III. sapiō, 122, III. sarciō, 123, III. scindo, 122, I, 2, N. scisco, 122, IV, 2. scrībō, 122, I, 1, a. sculpō, 122, I, 1, a. secō, 120, II. sedeö, 121, V. sentio, 123, III. sepelio, 123, I. sequor, 122, V. sero, 122, I, 6. serpō, 122, I, 1, a. sileō, 121, II, a, N. 1. sino, 122, I, 6. solvō, 122, I, 4. sonō, 120, II. spargö, 122, I, 1, b. spernő, 122, I, 6. splendeō, 121, II, a, N. 1. spondeō, 121, IV. statuo, 122, II. sternō, 122, I, 6. -stinguō, 122, [, 1, a.

strepō, 122, I, 5.
strīdeō, 121, VI.
stringō, 122, I, 1, a.
struō, 122, II.
studeō, 121, III.
studeō, 121, III.
subigō, 122, I, 3.
subsum, 125.
sum, 100.
sūmō, 122, I, 3.
suō, 122, II.
supersum, 125.
sustineō, 121, II. b.

T.

taceō, 121, II, a. tacdet, 138, II. tangō, 122, I, 2. temō, 122, I, 1, a. temō, 122, I, 1, a. tendō, 122, I, 1, b. terō, 122, I, 6. terrō, 121, II, a.

texō, 122, I, 5. timeō, 121, II, a, N. 1. tingō, 122, I, I, a. tollo, 122, I, 2, N. tonat, 138, I. tondeo, 121, IV. tonö, 120, II. torpeō, 121, II, a, N. I. torqueo, 121, III. torreo, 121, II, b. trādō, 122, I, 2. trahō, 122, I, 1, a. tremo, 122, I, 5. tribuō, 122, II. trūdō, 122, I, 1, b. tueor, 121, VII. tundö, 122, I, 2.

U.

ulcīscor, 122, V. unguō, 122, I, I, a. urgeō, 121, III. ūrō, 122, I, I, a. ūtor, 122, V.

v. vādō. 122. I. I. b. valeo, 121, II, a. vehō, 122, I, I, a. vellō, 122, I, 4. veniō, 123, IV. vereor, 121, VII. vergō, 122, I, 7. verrō, 122, I, 4. vertō, 122, I, 4. vescor, 122, V. vetō, 120, II. videō. 121. V. vigeō, 121, II, a, N, I. vinciō, 123, III. vinco, 122, I, 3. vireo, 121, II, a, N. I. vīsō, 122, I, 4. vīvō, 122, I, I, a. volō, 130. volvo, 122, I, 4. vomō, 122, I, 5. voveō, 121, V.

GENERAL INDEX.

Α.	Ablative case, with prepositions, 142; 213 f.
-a, ending of nom. sing., 1st decl., 20;	with verbs of filling, 218, 8.
for \tilde{e} in Greek nouns, 22, 1.	with adjs. of plenty, 218, 8.
\bar{a} , ab , abs , use, 142, 1; with town names,	abs, 142, 1.
229, 2.	absēns, 125.
\bar{a} to denote agency, 216.	Absolute ablative, 227.
—— to denote separation, 214.	— time, of participles, 336, 4.
—— with town names, 229, 2.	—— use of verbs, 174, a.
-ā- stems, 20.	Abstract nouns, 12, 2, b); 55, 4, c).
Abbreviations of proper names, 373.	-ābus, 21, 2, e).
Ablative case, 17; 213 f.	ac, 341, 2, b); = as, than, 341, 1, c).
— formation of sing. of adjs. of 3d	Acatalectic verses, 366, 9.
decl., 67, a; 70, 1-5.	Accent, 6; in gen. of nouns in -ius and
— genuine abl. uses, 214 f.	-ium, 25, 1 and 2.
— absolute, 227.	Accompaniment, abl. of, 222.
of agent, 216.	Accordance, abl. of, 220, 3.
— of accompaniment, 222.	Accusative case, 17; 172 f.
of accordance, 220, 3.	of duration of time, 181.
of attendant circumstance, 221;	of result produced, 173, B; 176.
227, 2, e).	of extent of space, 181.
— of cause, 219.	of limit of motion, 182 f.
— of comparison, 217.	— of person or thing affected, 173, A;
— of degree of difference, 223.	175.
—— of fine, 208, 2, b.	— in exclamations, 183.
— of manner, 220.	—— as subj. of inf., 184.
of means, 218.	with adv. force, 176, 3.
of penalty, 208, 2, b.	with compounds, 175, 2.
of place where, 228.	with passive used as middle, 175,
of place whence, 229.	(2,d).
— of price, 225.	—— cognate acc., 176, 4.
— of quality, 224.	Greek acc., 180.
of separation, 214.	synecdochical acc., 180.
— of source, 215.	two accs., direct obj. and pred. acc.,
of specification, 226.	177; person affected and result pro-
of time at which, 230.	duced, 178; with compounds of trāns,
of time within which, 231, 1.	179; with other compounds, 179, 2;
—— of time within which, 231.	with prepositions, 141; 179 f.
of way by which, 218, 9.	retained in pass., 178, 2.
with faciō, fīō, 218, 6.	Accusing, verbs of, constr., 208

```
acc\bar{u}s\bar{o}, constr., 178, 1, d).
                                             aequor, decl., 34.
ācer. 68.
                                             aequum est, 271, 1, b).
Acquitting, verbs of, constr., 208 f.
                                             aes, 57, 7.
ac sī, 307, 1.
                                             aetās, decl., 40, 1, e); id aetātis, 185, 2.
ad, 'toward,' 'in vicinity of,' 182, 3,
                                             -aeus, 152, 3.
-adēs, 148, 6, a.
                                             aevoni, 24.
adg = agg - 9, 2.
                                             Agency, dat. of, 189; abl., 216.
Adjectives, 62 f.; 354; derivation of,
                                             Agent, abl., 216.
   150 f.
                                             ager, decl., 23.

    of 1st and 2d decl., 63 ff.

                                             -āi, case-ending, gen. sing., 1st decl.,
---- in -ius, gen, sing., 63, a.
                                               poet., 21, 2, b).
--- of 3d decl., 67 ff.; in abl., 70, 5.
                                             ain, 135, N.
 - comparison of adjs., 71 f.; in -er,
                                             ājō, 135.
   71, 3; in -ilis, 71, 4; comparative
                                             alacer, comp., 73, 4.
   lacking, 73, 3; defective comparison,
                                             aliqua, 91, 2.
   73; not admitting comparison, 75;
                                             aliqui, 91; 91, 2.
                                             aliquis, 91; 252, 2; aliquis dicat, dixerit,
   comparison by magis and maxime, 74.
 ---- numerals, 78 f.
                                             -ālis, 151, 2.
 —— syntax, 233 ff.
                                             alius, 66; 92, 1; used correlatively, 253, 1.
 — agreement, 234 f.
 — used substantively, 236 f.
                                             alius ac, 341, 1, c).
                                              Allia, gender of, 15, 3, N.
 — denoting part of an object, 241, 1.
 - with force of adverbs, 239.
                                             alliciö, 109, 2, b).
                                             Alliteration, 375, 3.
 - force of comp. and superl., 240, 1.
 --- not followed by infinitive, 333.
                                             Alphabet, 1.
 --- not used with proper names, 354, 3.
                                             alter, 66; 92, 1; used correlatively,
 - equivalent to a poss. gen., 354, 4.
                                                253, I.
    - special Latin equivalents of Eng.
                                             Alternative questions, 162, 4; indirect.
   adjs., 354, 1.
                                                300, 4.
    – equiv. to rel. clause, 241, 2.
                                             alteruter, 92, 2.
                                             alvus, gender of, 26, 1, b).
  --- as pred. acc., 177, 2.
    – position of adj., 350, 4.
                                             amandus sum, 115.
 adl-=all-, 9, 2,
                                             amātūrus sum, 115.
admoneo, constr., 207.
                                             ambō, 80, 2, a; 355, 2,
adr = arr - 0, 2,
                                             amō. 101.
ads-=ass-, 9, 2.
                                             amplius = amplius quam, 217, 3.
ad sensum, constr., 235, B, 2, c; 254, 4.
                                             an, 162, 4, and a); 300, 4; haud scio an,
adulescens, 9, 2.
                                                nesciō an, 300, 5.
                                              Anacoluthon, 374, 6.
 adulter, decl., 23, 2.
                                             Anapaest, 366, 2.
adultus, 114, 2.
Adverbs, formation and comparison,
                                             Anaphora, 350, 11, b).
   76 f.: 140, 157.
                                             Anastrophe of prep., 141, 2; 142, 3;
  - in -iter from adjs. in -us, 77, 4.
                                                144, 3.
 ---- -tus and -tim, 77, 5.
                                             anceps (syllaba anceps), 366, 10.
   — in -0, 77, 2,
                                             Androgeos, decl., 27.
   — numeral, 79.
                                             animal, decl., 39.
  --- as preps., 144, 2.
                                             animī, 232, 3.
  — derivation of, 157.
                                             annön, 162, 4.
   — special meanings, 347.
                                             Answers, 162, 5.
 — position, 350, 6.
                                             ante in expressions of time, 144, 1; 357, 1.
 Adversative clauses, 309.
                                             Antecedent of rel., 251.
 —— conjunctions, 343.
                                                 - attraction of, 251, 4.
aedēs. 61.
                                                 - incorporated with rel., 251, 4.
```

Antecedent omitted, 251, 1. - repeated with rel., 251, 3. Antepenult, 6, 2, antequam, with ind., 201; with subjv., 292. Anticipation, 374, 5. -ānus, 151, 2; 152, 1; 3. Aorist tense, see Historical perfect, Apodosis, 301. - in conditional sent, of 1st type, 302, 4. Apposition, 169; partitive, 169, 5; with voc. in nom., 171, 2; genitive, 202. Appositive of locative, 160, 4; with acc. of limit of motion, 182, 2, a; with town names in abl. of place whence, 229, 2. - position of, 350, 2. Archias, 22. arguō, constr., 178, 1, d). -āris, 151, 2. -ārium, 148, 3. -ārius, 151, 2. armiger, decl., 23, 2, Arsis, 366, 6. arx. decl., 40. -ās, old Gen. sing., 1st decl., case-ending, 21, 2, a). ending of Greek nouns, nom. sing. - $\bar{a}tis$, abl. of patrials in, 70, 5, c). Aspirates, 2, 3, ϵ). Assimilation of consonants, 8, 4 f.: 9, 2, Asyndeton, 341, 4, a); 346. at, 343, 1, d). -ātim, 157, 2. atomus, gender of, 26, I, c). atque, 341, 2, b); = as, 341, 1, c). atquī, 343, 1, e). Attendant circumstance, abl. of, 221; 227, 2, e). Attraction of demonstratives, 246, 5; of relatives, 250, 5; subjunctive by attraction, 324; of adjectives, 327, 2, a; 328, 2. audeō, 114, 1. audio, 107; with pres. partic., 337, 3. aut, 342, 1, a). autem, 343, 1, c); 350, 8. Auxiliary omitted in infin., 116, 5. auxilium, auxilia, 61. -āx, 150, 2.

B.

balneum, balneae, 60, 2.
barbitos, decl., 27.
belli, 232, 2.
bellum, decl., 23.
bene, comparison, 77, 1.
benevolens, 71, 5, a).
bijugis, 362, 4.
bilis, 150, 4.
bonus, 63; comparison, 72.
bös, 41.
Brachylogy, 374, 2.
Bucolic diaeresis, 368, 3, d.
bulum, 147, 4.
bundus, 150, 1.

C.

caedēs, decl., 40. Caesura, 366, 8; in dactylic hexameter, 368, 3. calcar, decl., 39. Calendar, 371; 372. Calends, 371, 2, a). canis, 38, 2. capiō. 110. carbasus, gender of, 26, 1, b). carcer, carceres, 61. Cardinals, 78, 1; 79; 81, 1; decl., 80. carō, 42. carrus, carrum, 60, I. Cases, 17; alike in form, 19; 170 ff. Case-endings, 17, 3. castrum, castra, 61. Catalectic verses, 366, 9. causa, nulla causa est cur, etc., 295, 7. Causal clauses, 285; 286; clause of characteristic with accessory notion of cause, 283, 3. - conjunctions, 345. causā, with gen., 198, 1. Cause, abl. of, 219; 227, 2, d). cavě, 363, 2, b). cavē nē in prohibitions, 276, c. -ce, 6, 3 f.; 87, footnote 2. cedo, cette, 137, 3. celer, 68, 2, cēlō, constr., 178, 1, e). cēnātus, 114, 2. cētera, 185, 2. cēterī, 253, 4. Characteristic, clauses of, 283; gen. of, 203, I; abl., 224.

```
Chiasmus, 350, 11, c).
                                              Conditional clauses of comparison, 307.
 circumdo, constr., 187, 1, a.
                                                 - sentences, 1st type, 302; in indir.
                                                disc., 319; 2d type, 303; in indir. disc.,
 citerior, 73, 1.
                                                320; 3d type, 304; in indir. disc., 321;
 cito, 77, 2, a.
                                                abl. abs. equivalent to, 227, 2, 6); in-
 cīvitās, decl., 40, 1, e.
                                                troduced by relative pronouns, 312.
 clam, 144, 2.
 Clauses, coord, and subord., 164, 165.
                                              confido, 219, 1, a.
 Clauses of characteristic, 283: purpose,
                                              Conjugation, II: 93 f.: the four conju-
                                                gations, 98; periphrastic, 115; pecul-
   282; result, 284; causal, 285; temporal
   with postquam, ut, ubi, simul ac, etc.
                                               iarities of conj., 116.
   287; with cum, 288; substantive
                                              Conjunctions, 341 f.
                                              conor. with inf., 295, 5, a.
   clauses, 294 f.; condition, 301 f.; con-
   cessive, 308; adversative, 309; wish
                                              Consecutive clauses, see Result clauses.
   or proviso, 310; relative, 311 f.; 283 f.
                                              consistere, with abl., 218, 4.
clipeus, clipeum, 60, 1.
                                              Consonant stems, 20 f.
 Close of sentences, cadences used, 350,
                                                  partially adapted to i-stems, 40.
                                             Consonants, 2, 2 f.; 3, 3.
   12
                                                 -, double, 2, 9.
coepī, 133; coeptus est, 133, 1.
                                                 - combinations of, in division into
Cognate acc., 176, 4.
                                                syllables, 4, 2 f.
cōgō, 178, 1, d); 331, VI.
                                              Consonant changes, 8; omission of fi-
Collective nouns, 12, 2, a).
                                               nals, 8, 3; assimilation of, 8, 4 f.
colus, gender of, 26, \mathbf{I}, b).
comedō, 128, 2.
                                                 - stems, 29; following analogy of i-
comētēs. 22.
                                               stems, 40.
comitia, 230, I.
                                             conspicio, 109, 2, b).
Common gender, 15, B, N. 1.
                                             constare, 218, 4.
    – nouns, 12, 1.
                                              Construction acc. to sense, 254, 4; 235,
    vowels, 5, A, 2, N.
                                                B. 2, c).
  ---- syllables, 5, B, 3.
                                             consuetudo est, with substantive clause.
commonefacio, 207.
                                               297, 3.
                                             c\bar{o}nsu\bar{e}v\bar{i} = pres., 262, A.
commoneo, 207.
                                             Contending, verbs of, with dat., 358, 3.
commūnis, with gen., 204, 2; with dat.,
   204, 2, a.
                                             contentus, 219, 1.
 Comparison of adjs., 71 f.
                                             contineri, with abl., 218, 4.
   — participles as adjs., 71, 2.
                                             contrā, 144, 1.
 ---- adjs. in -dicus, -ficus, -volus, 71, 5.
                                              Contraction, 7, 2.
 - defective, 73.
                                                 -, length of vowel as result of, 5, A.
 ---- abl. of, 217.
                                               1, 6).
Comparatives, occasional meaning, 240.
                                             Convicting, verbs of, constr., 208 f.
  -, two required in Latin, 240, 4.
                                             Coördinate clauses, 165.
Compendiary comparison, 374, 2, b).
                                                 - conjunctions, 341 f.
Compounds, 158 f.; separation into syl-
                                             copia, copiae, 61.
   lables, 4, 4; spelling of, 9, 2.
                                             Copulative conjunctions, 341.
Compound sentences, 164.
                                             cor, 57, 7.
Conative uses of pres., 259, 2; of imperf.,
                                             cornū, decl., 48.
                                             Correlative conjunctions, 341, 3; 342, 2.
   260, 3; of pres. partic., 336, 2, a.
Concessive clauses, 308; 'although' as
                                                 – adverbs, 140.
   accessory idea to clause of character-
                                             cottidie, 9, 2.
   istic, 283, 3,
                                             -crum, 147. 4.
   - subjunctive, 278.
                                             -culum, 147, 4.
Conclusion, see Apodosis.
                                             -culus (a, um), 148, 1.
Concrete nouns, 12, 2, a).
                                             cum, appended, 142, 4.
Condemning, verbs of, constr., 208 f.
                                             cum, 'when,' 288-290.
```

```
cum, adversative, 300, 3.
                                             dedecet, 175, 2, c).
                                             Defective verbs, 133 f.; nouns, 54 f.; 52
---- causal, 286, 2.
                                               4; 57; comparison, 73.
 — explicative, 290.
   - to denote a recurring action, 288, 3;
                                             Deliberative subjv., 277; in indir. disc.,
  289, a.
                                               315, 3.
  - 'when suddenly,' 288, 2.
                                             Demonstrative pronouns, 87; 246.
   -, with abl. of manner, 220; with abl.
                                             Denominative verbs, 156.
  of accompaniment, 222.
                                             Dental mutes, 2, 4.
                                                – stems, 33.
cum . . . tum, 290, 2.
cum primum, 287, 1.
                                             Deponent verbs, 112; forms with passive
cum, spelling of, 9, 1.
                                               meanings, 112, b); semi-deponents,
-cundus, 150, 1.
cupiō, 109, 2, a); 331, IV, and a.
                                             Derivatives, 147 f.
                                             Desideratives, 155, 3.
cūr, nūlla causa est cūr, 295, 7.
                                             deterior, 73, 1.
                                             deus, 25, 4.
                    D.
Dactyl, 366, 2.
                                             devertor, 114, 3.
Dactylic hexameter, 368.
                                             dextrum, 185, 2.
- mentameter, 369.
                                             Diaeresis, 366, 8; bucolic d., 368, 3, d).
divis. 57. 6.
                                             Diastole, 367, 2.
Lates, 371, 2-5; as indeclinable nouns,
                                             dīc, 116, 3.
  371, 6; in leap year, 371, 7.
                                             dicitur, dictum est, 332, note.
[ ative, 17; irregular, 1st decl., 21, 2, c);
                                             dīcō, accent of compounds of, in imper.,
  3d decl., 47, 5; 4th decl., 49, 2; 3; 5th
                                               116, 3.
  decl., 52, 1 and 3; 186 ff.
                                             -dicus, comparison of adjs. in, 71, 5.
- - of agency, 189.
                                             Dīdō. decl., 47, 8.
-- of direction, 193.
                                             dies, decl., 51; gender, 53.
---- of indir. obj., 187.
                                             Difference, abl. of degree of, 223.

    of advantage or disadvantage, so

                                             difficile est, 271, 1, b).
  called, 188, 1.
                                             difficilis, comp., 71, 4.
 of local standpoint, 188, 2, a).
                                             dignus, 226, 2; in rel. clauses of purpose,
                                               282, 3.
--- of person judging, 188, 2, c).
 — of possession, 190; 359, 1.
                                             Dimeter verses, 366, 11.
 — of purpose, 191; 339, 7.
                                             Diminutives, 148, 1.
                                             Diphthongs, 2, 1; 3, 2; diphthong
--- of reference, 188.
                                               stems, 41; diphthongs shortened,
--- of separation, 188, 2, d).
 --- with adjs., 192.
                                               362, 2.
- with compound verbs, 187, III.
                                             diphthongus, gender of, 26, 1, c).
- with intrans. verbs, 187, II.
                                             Dipodies, 366, 11.
— with pass, verbs, 187, II, b.
                                             Direct reflexives, 244, 1.
--- with trans. verbs, 187, I.

    object, 172.

-- with verbs of mingling, 358, 3.
                                             Disjunctive conjunctions, 342.
- - ethical dat., 188, 2, \delta).
                                             dissimilis, comp., 71, 4.
d\bar{e}, with abl. instead of gen. of whole,
                                             Distributives, 78, 1; 79; 81, 4.
  201, I, a.
                                             di\bar{u}, compared, 77, 1.
dea, deābus, 21, 2, e).
                                             dīves, 70, 1.
dēbēbam, dēbuī in apodosis, 304, 3, a).
                                             dīxtī, 116, 4, c.
dēbuī, with pres. inf., 270, 2.
                                             dō, 127.
decemvir, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, b).
                                             doceo, with acc., 178, 1, b); with inf., 331,
decet, 175, 2, c).
                                               VI.
Declaratory sentences in indir. disc., 314.
                                             domi, 232, 2.
Declension, II: heteroclites, 50.
                                             domō, 229, I, b).

    stems and gen. terminations, 18.

                                             domõs, 182, 1, 6.
```

```
domum, 182, 1, b); 'house,' in acc., 182, | epistula, 9, 2.
   note.
                                               epitomē, 22.
 domus, 49, 4.
                                               epulum, epulae, 60, 2.
 donec, with ind., 293; with subjv., 293,
                                              equabus; 21, 2, e).
   III, 2.
                                              equos, 24.
                                               -er, decl. of nouns in, 23.
 dono, constr., 187, 1, a.
 Double consonants, 2, 9.
                                              ergō, 344, I, b).
    - questions, 162, 4; indirect, 300, 4.
                                               -ernus. 154.
                                              -ēs, ending of Greek nouns, nom. sink,
 Dubitative subjunctive, see Deliberative.
 dubito, dubium est, constr. with, 298.
                                                 in, 22.
 dūc. 116. 3.
                                                  -, gen. -is, decl. of nouns in, 40, 1, a
                                               esse, 100; omitted, 116, 5.
 dūcō, accent of compounds of, in imper.,
   116, 3.
                                               est qui, with subj., 283, 2.
 duim, duint, 127, 2.
                                               et, 341, 1, a; in enumerations, 341, 4, c).
 -dum, 6, 3.
                                               et is, 247, 4.
 dum, temporal with ind., 293; with subjv.,
                                              et . . . neque, 341, 3.
   293, III, 2; in wishes and provisos.
                                               Ethical dative, 188, 2, 6).
                                               etiam, in answers, 162, 5.
 dummodo, 310.
                                               et non, 341, 2, c).
                                               etsī, 'although,' 309, 2; etsī, 'even if.'
duo, 80, 2,
 duumvir, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, 6).
                                                 309, 2, a.
 dux, decl., 32.
                                               -ētum, 148, 3.
                                               -eus, 151, I.
                                               ex. 142, 2; with abl., instead of gen. of
                     E.
 ē, stems, 51.
                                                 whole, 201, 1, a; with abl. of source.
-ē, ending of Greek nouns, nom. sing. in,
                                                 215, 1.
                                               exposco, constr., 178, 1, a).
   22; in dat., 5th decl., 52, 3,
 -ē, abl. of participles in -āns, -ēns, in, 70, 3.
                                              exsistō, 9, 2.
                                               exspecto, 9, 2.
 ē, ex, use, 142, 2.
 ecquis, 91, 6.
                                               exteri, exterior, 73, 2.
 ēdīc. 116. 3.
                                               extrēmus, 241, I.
 edō, 128.
ēdūc, 116, 3.
                                                                    F.
 ego, 84.
                                               fac, 116, 3.
 egomet, 84, 2.
                                               facile, 77, 3.
 -ěī, gen. of 5th decl., 52, 1.
                                               facilis, comp., 71, 4.
-ēis, 148, 6, b).
                                               faciō, 109, 2, a).
 ējus, as poss., 86, 1.
                                                  —, in imper., 116, 3.
                                               falsus, 73, 3.
 Elegiac distich, 369, 2.
 Elision, 366, 7.
                                               famē, 59, 2, b).
                                               familiās, 21, 2, a).
 Ellipsis, 374, I.
 -ellus (a, um), 148, I.
                                               fārī, 136.
 Emphasis, 349.
                                               fas, 58.
                                               fauces, decl., 40, 1, d).
 Enclitics, accent of preceding syllable,
   6. 3.
                                               Fearing, verbs of, constr., 296, 2.
 Endings, personal of verb, 96; in forma-
                                               felix, 70.
   tion of words, 147 f.
                                               Feminine, see Gender.
                                               Feminine caesura, 368, 3, c.
 enim, 345.
 -ēnsimus (-ēnsumus), 79, N.
                                               femur, 42, 4.
 -ēnsis, 151, 2; 152, 3.
                                               -fer, decl. of nouns in, 23, 2; adjs., 65, 1.
                                               ferō, 129.
 eō, 132; cpds., 132, 1.
Epexegetical genitive, 202.
                                               ferus, 75, 2.
Epistolary tenses, 265.
                                               -ficus, comparison of adjs. in, 71, 5.
```

```
Future tense, 261; with imperative force,
fideī, 362, I, b.
fīdō, 114, 1.
                                               261. 3.
fīdō, with abl., 219, 1, a.
                                                  time in the subjv., 260.
                                                   perfect, 264; with future meaning,
fidus, 73, 3.
fierem, fieri, 362, I, c).
                                                 – imperative, 281, 1.
Fifth decl., 51 f.
                                              futurum esse ut, with subjv., 270, 3.
Figures of rhetoric, 375.

    of syntax, 374.

fili, 25, 3.
                                                                  G.
filia, filiābus, 21, 2, e).
                                             gaudeō, 114, 1.
Final clauses, see Purpose clauses.
                                             Gender, 13-15; in 1st decl., 20, 21; in
Final consonant omitted, 8, 3.
                                                2d decl., 23; exceptions, 26; in 3d
Final syllables, quantity, 363, 364.
                                                decl., 43 f.; in 4th decl., 50; in 5th
finis, fines, 61.
                                                decl., 53; determined by endings, 14;
Finite verb. 05.
                                                by signification, 15, A; heterogeneous
fiō, 131.
                                                nouns, 60.
fiō, with abl., 218, 6.
                                             gener, decl., 23, 2.
First conj., 101.
                                             Genitive, 17; in -i for -ii, 25, 1 and 2; of
First decl., 20 f.; peculiarities, 21.
                                                4th decl. in -ī, 49, I; of 5th decl. in -ī,
flagito, constr., 178, 1, a).
                                                52, 2; of 5th decl. in - 2, 52, 1; in -ē,
fodiō, 109, 2, a).
                                                52, 3; of 1st decl. in -\bar{a}i, 21, 2, b); of
Foot, in verse, 366, 2.
                                                Ist decl. in -as, 21, 2, a); gen. plu. -um
'For,' its Latin equivalents, 358, 1.
                                                for -arum, 21, 2, d); -um for -orum,
fore, page 57, footnote 3.
                                                25, 6; gen. plu. lacking, 57, 7; syntax
fore ut, 270, 3.
                                                of, 194 f.
forem, fores, etc., page 57, footnote 2.
                                                  - of characteristic, 203, I.
                                                   of charge with judicial verbs, 208.
foris, 228, I, C.
Formation of words, 146 f.
                                                  - of indefinite price, 203, 4.
fors, forte, 57, 2, a.
                                                 – of indefinite value, 203, 3.
fortior, 69.
                                                   of material, 197.
fortis, 60.
                                                  - of measure, 203, 2.
fortūna, fortūnae, 61.

    of origin, 196.

Fourth conj., 107.

    of possession, 198.

Fourth decl., 48; dat. in -\bar{u}, 49, 2;
                                                  – of quality, 203.
  gen. in -ī, 49, 1; dat. abl. plu. in -ubus,
                                                  - of the whole, 201.
                                                   appositional, 202.
  49, 3.
fraude, 220, 2.
                                                   objective, 200.
frēnum, plu. of, 60, 2.
                                                   of separation, 212, 3.
Frequentatives, 155, 2.
                                                   subjective, 199.
frētus, 218, 3.
                                                  with adjs., 204; with participles,
Fricatives, 2, 7.
                                                204, I, a.
frūctus, decl., 48.
                                                  - with causā, grātiā, 198, 1.
frūgī, compared, 72; 70, 6.
                                                  with verbs, 205 f.; of plenty and
frūgis, 57, 6.
                                                want, 212; with impers. verbs, 209.
fruor, with abl., 218, 1; in gerundive
                                                 position of gen., 350, 1.
  constr., 339, 4.
                                             genus, decl., 36; id genus, 185, 1.
                                             -ger, decl. of nouns in, 23, 2; adjs., 65, 1.
fugiō, 109, 2, a).
fui, fuisti, etc., for sum, es, etc., in com-
                                             Gerund, 338; with object, 338, 5.
                                              Gerundive, 337, 8.
  pound tenses, p. 60, footnote; p. 61,
                                              Gerundive const., 339, 1-6; in passive
fungor, 218, 1; in gerundive constr., 339, 4.
                                                periphrastic conj., 337, 8 f.; gen. de-
f\bar{u}r, decl., 40, 1, d).
                                                noting purpose, 339, 6: with dat. of
fūrtō, 220, 2.
                                                purpose, 191, 3; 339. 7.
```

strepō, 122, I, 5. strīdeō, 121, VI. stringō, 122, I, 1, a. struō, 122, II. studeō, 121, III. a. N. I. suādeō, 121, III. subigō, 122, I, 3. subsum, 125. sum, 100. sūmō, 122, I, 3. suō, 122, II. supersum, 125. sustineō, 121, II. b.

T.

taceō, 121, II, a. taedet, 138, II. tangō, 122, I, 2. temō, 122, I, 1, a. temō, 122, I, 1, a. tendō, 122, I, 2, teneō, 121, II, b. terō, 122, I, 6. terreō, 121, II, a.

texō. 122. I. 5. timeō, 121, II, a, N. I. tingō, 122, I, 1, a. tollo, 122, I, 2, N. tonat, 138, I. tondeo, 121, IV. tonō, 120, II. torpeō, 121, II, a, N. I. torqueō, 121, III. torreo, 121, II, b. trādō, 122, I, 2. trahō, 122, I, 1, a. tremõ, 122, I, 5. tribuō, 122, II. trūdō, 122, I, 1, b. tueor, 121, VII. tundō, 122, I, 2.

U.

ulcīscor, 122, V. unguō, 122, I, I, a. urgeō, 121, III. ūrō, 122, I, I, a. ūtor, 122, V.

v. vādō. 122. I. I. b. valeō, 121, II. a. vehō, 122, I, 1, a. vello, 122, I, 4. veniō, 123, IV. vereor, 121, VII. vergo, 122, I, 7. verrō, 122, I, 4. vertō, 122, I, 4. vescor, 122, V. vetō, 120, II. video, 121, V. vigeō, 121, II, a, N. I. vincio, 123, III. vinco, 122, I, 3. vireō, 121, II, a, N. 1. vīsō, 122, I, 4. vīvō, 122, I, I, a. volō, 130. volvo, 122, I, 4. vomõ, 122, I, 5.

voveō. 121. V.

GENERAL INDEX.

Α.	Ablative case, with prepositions, 142; 213 f.
-a, ending of nom. sing., 1st decl., 20;	with verbs of filling, 218, 8.
for ē in Greek nouns, 22, 1.	— with adjs. of plenty, 218, 8.
\bar{a} , ab , abs , use, 142, 1; with town names,	abs, 142, 1.
229, 2.	absēns, 125.
\bar{a} to denote agency, 216.	Absolute ablative, 227.
—— to denote separation, 214.	time, of participles, 336, 4.
with town names, 229, 2.	— use of verbs, 174, a.
-ã- stems, 20.	Abstract nouns, 12, 2, b); 55, 4, c).
Abbreviations of proper names, 373.	-ābus, 21, 2, e).
Ablative case, 17; 213 f.	ac, 341, 2, b); = as, than, 341, 1, c).
formation of sing. of adjs. of 3d	Acatalectic verses, 366, 9.
decl., 67, a; 70, 1-5.	Accent, 6; in gen. of nouns in -ius and
—— genuine abl. uses, 214 f.	-ium, 25, I and 2.
— absolute, 227.	Accompaniment, abl. of, 222.
- — of agent, 216.	Accordance, abl. of, 220, 3.
of accompaniment, 222.	Accusative case, 17; 172 f.
of accordance, 220, 3.	of duration of time, 181.
of attendant circumstance, 221;	of result produced, 173, B; 176.
227, 2, e).	of extent of space, 181.
— of cause, 219.	of limit of motion, 182 f.
of comparison, 217.	— of person or thing affected, 173, A;
of degree of difference, 223.	175.
of fine, 208, 2, b.	in exclamations, 183.
of manner, 220.	—— as subj. of inf., 184. —— with adv. force, 176, 3.
of means, 218.	with adv. force, 176, 3 with compounds, 175, 2.
—— of penalty, 208, 2, b. —— of place where, 228.	with passive used as middle, 175,
of place whence, 229.	= with passive used as initially, 1/5, $2, d$).
— of price, 225.	cognate acc., 176, 4.
—— of quality, 224.	— Greek acc., 180.
of separation, 214.	synecdochical acc., 180.
of source, 215.	two accs., direct obj. and pred. acc.,
of specification, 226.	177; person affected and result pro-
— of time at which, 230.	duced, 178; with compounds of trans,
of time during which, 231, 1.	179; with other compounds, 179, 2;
of time within which, 231.	with prepositions, 141; 179 f.
— of way by which, 218, 9.	retained in pass., 178, 2.
	Accusing, verbs of, constr., 208 f.

```
accūsō, constr., 178, 1, d).
                                              aequor, decl., 34.
                                              aequum est, 271, 1, b).
ācer. 68.
Acquitting, verbs of, constr., 208 f.
                                              aes. 57. 7.
ac sī. 307. I.
                                              aetās, decl., 40, 1, e); id aetātis, 185, 2.
ad, 'toward,' 'in vicinity of,' 182, 3.
                                              -aeus, 152, 3.
-adēs, 148, 6, a.
                                              aevoni, 24.
adg = agg - 9, 2
                                              Agency, dat. of, 180; abl., 216.
 Adjectives, 62 f.; 354; derivation of,
                                              Agent, abl., 216.
   150 f.
                                              ager, decl., 23.
   — of 1st and 2d decl., 63 ff.
                                              -āī, case-ending, gen. sing., 1st decl.,
 — in -ius, gen. sing., 63, a.
                                                poet., 21, 2, b).
 --- of 3d decl., 67 ff.; in abl., 70, 5.
                                              ain, 135, N.
 --- comparison of adjs., 71 f.; in -er,
                                              ājō, 135.
   71, 3; in -ilis, 71, 4; comparative
                                              alacer, comp., 73, 4.
   lacking, 73, 3; defective comparison,
                                              aliqua, 91, 2.
   73; not admitting comparison, 75;
                                              aliquī, 91; 91, 2.
   comparison by magis and maxime, 74.
                                              aliquis, 91; 252, 2; aliquis dicat, dixerit,
 - numerals, 78 f.
                                                280, I.
 ---- syntax, 233 ff.
                                              -ālis, 151, 2.
                                              alius, 66; 92, 1; used correlatively, 253, 1.
 - agreement, 234 f.
 --- used substantively, 236 f.
                                              alius ac, 341, 1, c).
    - denoting part of an object, 241, 1.
                                              Allia, gender of, 15, 3, N.
  — with force of adverbs, 239.
                                              alliciō, 109, 2, b).
                                              Alliteration, 375, 3.
 ---- force of comp. and superl., 240, I.
 --- not followed by infinitive, 333.
                                              Alphabet, 1.
 --- not used with proper names, 354, 3.
                                              alter, 66; 92, 1; used correlatively,
 --- equivalent to a poss. gen., 354, 4.
                                                253, I.

    special Latin equivalents of Eng.

                                              Alternative questions, 162, 4; indirect,
   adjs., 354, I.
                                                300, 4.
 ---- equiv. to rel. clause, 241, 2.
                                              alteruter, 92, 2.
 --- as pred. acc., 177, 2.
                                              alvus, gender of, 26, 1, b).
    - position of adj., 350, 4.
                                              amandus sum, 115.
 adl-=all-, 9, 2.
                                              amātūrus sum, 115.
                                              ambō, 80, 2, a; 355, 2.
 admoneo, constr., 207.
 adr-=arr-0.2
                                              amō. 101.
                                              amplius = amplius quam, 217, 3.
 ads-=ass-, q, 2,
                                              an, 162, 4, and a); 300, 4; haud scio an,
 ad sensum, constr., 235, B, 2, c; 254, 4.
 adulescens, 9, 2.
                                                nesciō an, 300, 5.
 adulter, decl., 23, 2.
                                              Anacoluthon, 374, 6.
                                              Anapaest, 366, 2.
 adultus, 114, 2.
 Adverbs, formation and comparison,
                                              Anaphora, 350, 11, b).
   76 f.; 140, 157.
                                              Anastrophe of prep., 141, 2; 142, 3;
 - in -iter from adjs. in -us, 77, 4.
                                                144, 3.
 ---- -tus and -tim, 77, 5.
                                              anceps (syllaba anceps), 366, 10.
 ---- in -o, 77, 2.
                                              Androgeös, decl., 27.
  — numeral, 79.
                                              animal, decl., 39.
   --- as preps., 144, 2.
                                              animī, 232, 3.
    - derivation of, 157.
                                              annon, 162, 4.

    special meanings, 347.

                                              Answers, 162, 5.

    position, 350, 6.

                                              ante in expressions of time, 144, 1; 357, 1.
 Adversative clauses, 309.
                                              Antecedent of rel., 251.
 ---- conjunctions, 343.
                                                  attraction of, 251, 4.
aedēs, 61.
                                                  - incorporated with rel., 251, 4.
```

Antecedent omitted, 251, 1. - repeated with rel., 251, 3. balneum, balneae, 60, 2. Antepenult, 6, 2, barbitos, decl., 27. antequam, with ind., 201; with subjv., bellī, 232, 2. bellum, decl., 23. Anticipation, 374, 5. bene, comparison, 77, 1. -ānus, 151, 2; 152, 1; 3. benevolens, 71, 5, a). Aorist tense, see Historical perfect. bijugis, 362, 4. Apodosis, 301. -bilis, 150, 4. - in conditional sent. of 1st type, 302, 4. bōs. 41. Apposition, 169; partitive, 169, 5; with voc. in nom., 171, 2; genitive, 202. Appositive of locative, 169, 4; with acc. -bulum, 147, 4. of limit of motion, 182, 2, a; with town names in abl. of place whence, 229, 2. – position of, 350, 2. Archias, 22. $argu\bar{o}$, constr., 178, 1, d). -āris, 151, 2. 368, 3. -ārium, 148, 3. -ārius, 151, 2. armiger, decl., 23, 2. canis, 38, 2. Arsis, 366, 6. arx. decl., 40. capiō, 110. -ās, old Gen. sing., 1st decl., case-ending, 21, 2, a). ending of Greek nouns, nom, sing. carō, 42. - $\bar{a}tis$, abl. of patrials in, 70, 5, c). Aspirates, 2, 3, c). Assimilation of consonants, 8, 4 f.; 9, 2. Asyndeton, 341, 4, a); 346. at, 343, I, d). -ātim, 157, 2. atomus, gender of, 26, 1, c). atque, 341, 2, b); = as, 341, 1, c). atqui, 343, 1, e). Attendant circumstance, abl. of, 221; 227, 2, e). Attraction of demonstratives, 246, 5; of relatives, 250, 5; subjunctive by attraction, 324; of adjectives, 327, 2, a; 328, 2. audeō, 114, 1. audiō, 107; with pres. partic., 337, 3. celer, 68, 2. aut, 342, 1, a). autem, 343, 1, c); 350, 8. Auxiliary omitted in infin., 116, 5. cētera, 185, 2. cēterī, 253, 4. auxilium, auxilia, 61. -āx, 150, 2. Characteristic, clauses of, 283; gen. of, 203, I; abl., 224.

bonus, 63; comparison, 72.

Brachylogy, 374, 2. Bucolic diaeresis, 368, 3, d.

-bundus, 150, 1.

C.

caedes, decl., 40. Caesura, 366, 8; in dactylic hexameter, calcar, decl., 39. Calendar, 371; 372. Calends, 371, 2, a). carbasus, gender of, 26, 1, b). carcer, carceres, 61. Cardinals, 78, 1; 79; 81, 1; decl., 80. carrus, carrum, 60, 1. Cases, 17; alike in form, 19; 170 ff. Case-endings, 17, 3. castrum, castra, 61. Catalectic verses, 366, 9. causa, nulla causa est cur, etc., 295, 7. Causal clauses, 285; 286; clause of characteristic with accessory notion of cause, 283, 3. - conjunctions, 345. causā, with gen., 198, 1. Cause, abl. of, 219; 227, 2, d). cavě, 363, 2, b). cavē nē in prohibitions, 276, c. -ce, 6, 3 f.; 87, footnote 2. cedo, cette, 137, 3. cēlō, constr., 178, 1, e). cēnātus, 114, 2.

```
Conditional clauses of comparison, 207.
 Chiasmus, 350, 11, c).
                                                  - sentences, 1st type, 302; in indir.
 circumdo, constr., 187, 1, a.
 citerior, 73, I.
                                                disc., 319; 2d type, 303; in indir. disc.,
 cito, 77, 2, a.
                                                320; 3d type, 304; in indir. disc., 321;
 civitas, decl., 40, 1, e.
                                                abl. abs. equivalent to, 227, 2, b); in-
                                                troduced by relative pronouns, 312.
 clam, 144, 2.
 Clauses, coord. and subord., 164, 165.
                                              confido, 219, 1, a.
 Clauses of characteristic, 283: purpose,
                                             Conjugation, II: 03 f.: the four conju-
   282: result, 284: causal, 285: temporal
                                                gations, 98; periphrastic, 115; pecul-
   with postquam, ut, ubi, simul ac, etc.
                                                iarities of conj., 116.
   287; with cum, 288; substantive
                                             Conjunctions, 341 f.
                                             conor. with inf., 295, 5, a.
   clauses, 204 f.; condition, 301 f.; con-
   cessive, 308; adversative, 309; wish
                                              Consecutive clauses, see Result clauses.
   or proviso, 310; relative, 311 f.; 283 f.
                                             consistere, with abl., 218, 4.
 clipeus, clipeum, 60, 1.
                                             Consonant stems, 20 f.
 Close of sentences, cadences used, 350,
                                                  - partially adapted to i-stems, 40.
                                              Consonants, 2, 2 f.; 3, 3.
   T2.
 coepī, 133; coeptus est, 133, 1.
                                                  -, double, 2, 9.
 Cognate acc., 176, 4.
                                                  - combinations of, in division into
 cōgō, 178, 1, d); 331, VI.
                                                syllables, 4, 2 f.
                                              Consonant changes, 8; omission of fi-
 Collective nouns, 12, 2, a).
 colus, gender of, 26, 1, b).
                                                nals, 8, 3; assimilation of, 8, 4 f.
 comedo. 128. 2.
                                                  - stems, 29; following analogy of 2-
 comētēs, 22.
                                                stems, 40.
 comitia, 230, I.
                                              conspicio, 109, 2, b).
 Common gender, 15, B, N. I.
                                             constare, 218, 4.
    - nouns, 12, 1,
                                             Construction acc. to sense, 254, 4; 235,
 ---- vowels, 5, A, 2, N.
                                                B. 2. c).
   --- syllables, 5, B, 3.
                                             consuetudo est, with substantive clause.
 commonefacio, 207.
                                                297, 3.
 commoneo, 207.
                                             c\bar{o}nsu\bar{e}v\bar{i} = pres., 262, A.
 commūnis, with gen., 204, 2; with dat.,
                                             Contending, verbs of, with dat., 358, 3.
                                             contentus, 219, 1.
   204, 2, a.
 Comparison of adjs., 71 f.
                                             contineri, with abl., 218, 4.
     - participles as adjs., 71, 2.
                                             contrā, 144, 1.
    - adjs. in -dicus, -ficus, -volus, 71, 5.
                                             Contraction, 7, 2,
  - defective, 73.
                                                  , length of vowel as result of, 5, A.
  --- abl. of, 217.
                                                1. 6).
 Comparatives, occasional meaning, 240.
                                             Convicting, verbs of, constr., 208 f.
                                             Coördinate clauses, 165.
  ---, two required in Latin, 240, 4.
 Compendiary comparison, 374, 2, b).
                                                 - conjunctions, 241 f.
 Compounds, 158 f.; separation into syl-
                                             copia, copiae, 61.
   lables, 4, 4; spelling of, 9, 2.
                                             Copulative conjunctions, 341.
 Compound sentences, 164.
                                             cor, 57, 7.
 Conative uses of pres., 259, 2; of imperf.,
                                             cornū, decl., 48.
   260. 3; of pres. partic., 336, 2, a.
                                             Correlative conjunctions, 341, 3; 342, 2.
Concessive clauses, 308; 'although' as
                                                 – adverbs, 140.
   accessory idea to clause of character-
                                             cottīdiē, 9, 2.
   istic, 283, 3.
                                             -crum. 147. 4.
   - subjunctive, 278.
                                             -culum, 147, 4.
                                             -culus (a, um), 148, 1.
 Conclusion, see Apodosis.
Concrete nouns, 12, 2, a).
                                             cum, appended, 142, 4.
Condemning, verbs of, constr., 208 f.
                                             cum, 'when,' 288-290.
```

```
cum, adversative, 309, 3.
                                            dedecet, 175, 2, c).
---- causal, 286, 2.
                                            Defective verbs, 133 f.; nouns, 54 f.; 52,
---- explicative, 290,
                                               4; 57; comparison, 73.
 - to denote a recurring action, 288, 3;
                                            Deliberative subjv., 277; in indir. disc.,
  289, a.
                                               315, 3.
   - 'when suddenly,' 288, 2.
                                            Demonstrative pronouns, 87; 246.
   -, with abl. of manner, 220; with abl.
                                            Denominative verbs, 156.
  of accompaniment, 222.
                                             Dental mutes, 2, 4.
cum . . . tum, 290, 2.
                                                – stems, aa.
cum prīmum, 287, I.
                                            Deponent verbs, 112; forms with passive
cum, spelling of, q. I.
                                               meanings, 112, b); semi-deponents,
-cundus, 150, 1.
                                            Derivatives, 147 f.
cupiō, 109, 2, a); 331, IV, and a.
cur nulla causa est cur, 295, 7.
                                            Desideratives, 155, 3.
                                            deterior, 73, 1.
                                            deus, 25, 4.
Dactyl, 366, 2.
                                            devertor, 114, 3.
Bactvlic hexameter, 368.
                                            dextrum, 185, 2.
-- pentameter, 369.
                                             Diaeresis, 366, 8; bucolic d., 368, 3, d).
dipis, 57, 6.
                                            Diastole, 367, 2.
L'ates, 371, 2-5; as indeclinable nouns,
                                            dīc, 116, 3.
  371, 6; in leap year, 371, 7.
                                            dicitur, dictum est, 332, note.
[ ative, 17; irregular, 1st decl., 21, 2, c);
                                            dīcō, accent of compounds of, in imper.,
  3d decl., 47, 5; 4th decl., 49, 2; 3; 5th
                                               116, 3.
  decl., 52, 1 and 3; 186 ff.
                                             -dicus, comparison of adjs. in, 71, 5.
- - of agency, 189.
                                            Dido, decl., 47, 8.
-- of direction, 193.
                                            dies, decl., 51; gender, 53.
---- of indir. obj., 187.
                                            Difference, abl. of degree of, 223.

    of advantage or disadvantage, so

                                            difficile est, 271, 1, b).
                                            difficilis, comp., 71, 4.
 called, 188, 1.
- of local standpoint, 188, 2, a).
                                            dignus, 226, 2; in rel. clauses of purpose,
--- of person judging, 188, 2, c).
                                               282, 3.
--- of possession, 190; 359, 1.
                                             Dimeter verses, 366, 11.
 --- of purpose, 191; 339, 7.
                                             Diminutives, 148, 1.
 — of reference, 188.
                                             Diphthongs, 2, 1; 3, 2; diphthong
--- of separation, 188, 2, d).
                                               stems, 41; diphthongs shortened,
--- with adjs., 192.
                                               362. 2.
--- with compound verbs, 187, III.
                                            diphthongus, gender of, 26, 1, c).
--- with intrans. verbs, 187, II.
                                             Dipodies, 366, 11.
— with pass. verbs, 187, II, b.
                                             Direct reflexives, 244, 1.
 --- with trans. verbs, 187, I.

    object, 172.

-- with verbs of mingling, 358, 3.
                                             Disjunctive conjunctions, 342.
-- - ethical dat., 188, 2, b).
                                            dissimilis, comp., 71, 4.
de, with abl. instead of gen. of whole,
                                            Distributives, 78, 1; 79; 81, 4.
  20I, I, a.
                                             diū, compared, 77, 1.
dea, deābus, 21, 2, e).
                                             dīves. 70. I.
dēbēbam, dēbuī in apodosis, 304, 3, a).
                                             dīxtī, 116, 4, c.
dēbuī, with pres. inf., 270, 2.
                                            dō, 127.
decemvir, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, b).
                                             doceo, with acc., 178, 1, b); with inf., 331,
decet, 175, 2, c).
                                               VI.
Declaratory sentences in indir. disc., 314.
                                            domi, 232, 2.
Declension, II; heteroclites, 59.
                                             domō, 220, I, b).
 ---, stems and gen. terminations, 18.
                                            domös, 182, 1, b.
```

Epistolary tenses, 265.

```
The references are to sections and paragraphs.
```

```
domum, 182, 1, b); 'house,' in acc., 182, | epistula, 9, 2.
                                              ebitomē. 22.
  note
domus, 49, 4.
                                              epulum, epulae, 60, 2.
                                              equābus, 21, 2, e).
donec, with ind., 293; with subjv., 293,
  III. 2.
                                              equos, 24.
dōnō, constr., 187, 1, a.
                                              -er, decl. of nouns in. 23.
Double consonants, 2, 9,
                                              ergō, 344, I, b).
   - questions, 162, 4; indirect, 300, 4.
                                              -ernus, 154.
Dubitative subjunctive, see Deliberative.
                                              -ēs, ending of Greek nouns, nom, sink.
dubito, dubium est, constr. with, 298.
                                                in. 22.
dūc, 116, 3.
                                                 -, gen. -is, decl. of nouns in, 40, 1, a.
dūcō, accent of compounds of, in imper.,
                                              esse, 100: omitted, 116, 5,
                                              est qui, with subj., 283, 2.
  116, 3,
duim, duint, 127, 2.
                                              et, 341, 1, a; in enumerations, 341, 4, c).
-dum, 6, 3.
                                              et is, 247, 4.
dum, temporal with ind., 203; with subjy...
                                              et . . . neque, 341, 3.
  293, IlI, 2; in wishes and provisos,
                                              Ethical dative, 188, 2, 6).
  310.
                                              etiam, in answers, 162, 5.
dummodo, 310.
                                              et non, 341, 2, c).
duo. 80, 2,
                                              etsī, 'although,' 300, 2; etsī, 'even if.'
duumvir, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, b).
                                                309, 2, a.
dux, decl., 32.
                                              -ētum, 148, 3.
                                              -eus. 151. 1.
                                              ex. 142, 2; with abl., instead of gen. of
ē. stems, 51.
                                                whole, 201, 1, a: with abl, of source.
-ē, ending of Greek nouns, nom. sing. in,
                                                215, 1.
  22; in dat., 5th decl., 52, 3.
                                              exposco, constr., 178, 1, a).
-ē, abl. of participles in -ans, -ens, in, 70, 3.
                                              exsistō, 9, 2.
ē. ex, use, 142, 2.
                                              exspecto, 9, 2.
ecquis, 91, 6.
                                              exteri, exterior, 73, 2.
ēdīc, 116, 3.
                                              extrēmus, 241, I.
edō, 128.
ēdūc, 116, 3.
                                                                   F.
ego, 84.
                                              fac, 116, 3.
egomet, 84. 2.
                                              facile, 77, 3.
-ĕī, gen. of 5th decl., 52, I.
                                              facilis, comp., 71, 4.
-ēis, 148, 6, b).
                                              faciō, 109, 2, a).
ējus, as poss., 86, 1.
                                                -, in imper., 116, 3.
Elegiac distich, 369, 2.
                                              falsus, 73, 3.
Elision, 366, 7.
                                              famē, 59, 2, b).
Ellipsis, 374, I.
                                              familias, 21, 2, a).
-ellus (a, um), 148, 1.
                                              fārī, 136.
Emphasis, 349.
                                              fas, 58.
Enclitics, accent of preceding syllable,
                                              faucēs, decl., 40, 1, d).
                                              Fearing, verbs of, constr., 296, 2,
Endings, personal of verb, 96; in forma-
                                              felix, 70.
  tion of words, 147 f.
                                              Feminine, see Gender.
enim, 345.
                                              Feminine caesura, 368, 3, c.
                                              femur, 42, 4.
-ēnsimus (-ēnsumus), 79, N.
                                              -fer, decl. of nouns in, 23, 2; adjs., 65, 1.
-ēnsis, 151, 2; 152, 3.
eō, 132; cpds., 132, 1.
                                              ferō, 129.
Epexegetical genitive, 202.
                                              ferus, 75, 2.
```

-ficus, comparison of adjs. in, 71, 5.

```
Future tense, 261: with imperative force.
fidei, 362, I, b.
fīdō, 114, 1.
                                               261, 3.
fīdō, with abl., 219, 1, a.
                                                  time in the subiv., 260.
                                                  perfect, 264: with future meaning,
fidus, 73, 3.
                                               133, 2.
fierem, fieri, 362, I, c).
                                                 - imperative, 281, 1.
Fifth decl., 51 f.
                                             futurum esse ut, with subjv., 270, 3.
Figures of rhetoric, 375.
   - of syntax, 374.
fili, 25, 3.
fīlia, fīliābus, 21, 2, e).
                                             gaudeō, 114, 1.
Final clauses, see Purpose clauses.
                                             Gender, 13-15; in 1st decl., 20, 21; in
Final consonant omitted, 8, 3.
                                               2d decl., 23; exceptions, 26; in 3d
Final syllables, quantity, 363, 364.
                                               decl., 43 f.; in 4th decl., 50; in 5th
finis, fines, 61.
                                               decl., 53; determined by endings, 14;
Finite verb, 95.
                                               by signification, 15, A; heterogeneous
fiō, 131.
                                               nouns, 60.
fio, with abl., 218, 6.
                                             gener, decl., 23, 2.
                                             Genitive, 17; in -ī for -iī, 25, 1 and 2; of
First conj., 101.
First decl., 20 f.; peculiarities, 21.
                                               4th decl. in -ī, 49, 1; of 5th decl. in -ī,
flagito, constr., 178, 1, a).
                                               52, 2; of 5th decl. in -žī, 52, 1; in -ē,
                                               52, 3; of 1st decl. in -\bar{a}i, 21, 2, b); of
fodio, 109, 2, a).
Foot, in verse, 366, 2.
                                               1st decl. in -ās, 21, 2, a); gen. plu. -um
'For,' its Latin equivalents, 358, I.
                                               for -arum, 21, 2, d); -um for -orum,
fore, page 57, footnote 3.
                                                25, 6; gen. plu. lacking, 57, 7; syntax
fore ut. 270, 3.
                                                of. 194 f.
forem, fores, etc., page 57, footnote 2.
                                                  - of characteristic, 203, I.
foris, 228, I, c.

    of charge with judicial verbs, 208.

Formation of words, 146 f.
                                                  - of indefinite price, 203, 4.
fors, forte, 57, 2, a.
                                                   of indefinite value, 203, 3.
                                                   of material, 197.
fortior, 60.
fortis, 69.
                                                   of measure, 203, 2.
fortūna, fortūnae, 61.
                                                   of origin, 196.
Fourth conj., 107.
                                                   of possession, 198.
Fourth decl., 48; dat. in - 1, 49, 2;
                                                  - of quality, 203.
  gen. in -ī, 49, 1; dat. abl. plu. in -ubus.
                                                  of the whole, 201.
  49, 3.
                                                   appositional, 202.
fraude, 220, 2.
                                                   objective, 200.
frenum, plu. of, 60, 2.
                                                   of separation, 212, 3.
Frequentatives, 155, 2.
                                                   subjective, 100.
frētus, 218, 3.
                                                  - with adjs., 204; with participles,
Fricatives, 2, 7.
                                                204, I, a.
frūctus, decl., 48.
                                                  – with causā, grātiā, 198, 1.
                                                  with verbs, 205 f.; of plenty and
frūgī, compared, 72; 70, 6.
                                                want, 212; with impers. verbs, 209.
frūgis, 57, 6.
fivor, with abl., 218, 1; in gerundive
                                                 - position of gen., 350, 1.
                                             genus, decl., 36; id genus, 185, 1.
  constr., 339, 4.
                                             -ger, decl. of nouns in, 23, 2; adjs., 65, I.
fugiō, 109, 2, a).
                                             Gerund, 338; with object, 338, 5.
fui, fuisti, etc., for sum, es, etc., in com-
                                             Gerundive, 337, 8.
  pound tenses, p. 60, footnote; p. 61,
                                             Gerundive const., 339, 1-6; in passive
fungor, 218, 1; in gerundive constr., 339, 4.
                                                periphrastic conj., 337, 8 f.; gen. de-
                                                noting purpose, 339, 6: with dat. of
f\bar{u}r, decl., 40, I, d).
                                                purpose, 191, 3; 339. 7.
fürtö, 220, 2.
```

```
gnārus, not compared, 75, 2,
                                              i-stem, vis. 41.
Gnomic present, 250, 1: perfect, 262, 1.
                                              i, in abl., 3d decl., 38, 1; 30.
                                                 - adjs., 67, 3, a; 70, 5.
gradior, 100, 2, c.
                                                  - participles, 70, 3.
Grammatical gender, 15.
grātiā, with gen., 198, 1; grātia, grātiae,

    patrials, 70, 5, c).

  61.
                                              -ia, 149.
                                              Iambus, 366, 2.
Greek nouns, 1st decl., 22; 2d decl., 27;
  exceptions in gender, 26, 1, c); 3d
                                              Iambic measures, 370.
                                                 – trimeter, 370.
  decl., 47; Greek acc., 180; Greek nouns
  in verse, 365.
                                              -iānus, 152, 1.
grūs, decl., 41, 2.
                                              -ias, 148, 6, b).
                                              -ībam, in imperf., 116, 4, b).
gu = gv, 3, 3.
                                              -ībō. in future, 116, 4, b).
Guttural mutes, 2, 4.
---- stems, 32.
                                              Ictus, 366, 5.
                                              -icus. 151, 2; 152, 2.
                    H.
                                              id aetātis, 185, 2.
habeo, with perf. pass. partic., 337, 6.
                                              id genus, 185, 1.
Hadria, 21, 1.
                                              id temporis, 185, 2.
Hard consonants, 2, 3, a), footnote 1.
                                              id quod, 247, 1, b.
haud, use, 347, 2, a; haud sciō an, 300, 5.
                                              Ideal 'vou,' see Indefinite second per-
havē. 137. 5.
                                                son.
Hendiadys, 374, 4.
                                              idem, 87; 248.
herī, 232, 2.
                                              idem ac, 248, 2.
Heteroclites, 59.
                                              Ides, 371, 2, c).
Heterogeneous nouns, 60.
                                              -īdēs, 148, 6, a).
Hiatus, 366, 7, a.
                                              -idēs, 148, 6, a).
hīc, 87; 246, 1; 246, 2.
                                              -īdō, 147, 3, c).
hiems, 35, footnote.
                                              idoneus, with rel. clause of purpose,
Historical tenses, 258; historical present,
                                                282, 3.
  259, 3; 268, 3; historical perfect, 262, B;
                                              -idus, 150, 3.
                                              -ier, inf. ending, 116, 4, a.
  historical infinitive, 335.
honor, decl., 36.
                                              igitur, 344, I, c).
Hortatory subjv., 274.
                                              ignis, decl., 38.
hortus, decl., 23.
                                              -īle, 148, 3.
                                              Ilion, decl., 27.
hōscine, 87, footnote 2.
hostis, decl., 38.
                                              -ilis, 151, 2.
hūjusce, 87, footnote 2.
                                              -ilis, 150, 4.
humī, 232, 2.
                                              Illative conjunctions, 344.
humilis, comp., 71, 4.
                                              ille, 87; 'the following,' 246, 2; 'the
                                                former,' 246, 1; 'the well-known,' 246,
humus, gender of, 26, 1, b).
Hyperbaton, 350, 11, a).
                                                3; position, 350, 5, b.
Hypermeter, 367, 6.
                                              illūc, 87, footnote 3.
Hysteron proteron, 374, 7.
                                              -illus (a, um), 148, 1.
                                              -im, in acc., 3d decl., 38, 1.
                                              -im, -īs in subjv., 116, 4, d.
i, i, i; becomes j, 367, 4; instead of u in
                                              impedimentum, impedimenta, 61.
  some words, 9, 1.
                                              Imperative, 281; tenses in, 94, 3; 281, 1;
i-stems, 37; 39; not always ending in -is,
                                                future indic. with force of, 261, 3.
                                                  - as protasis of a conditional sent.,
                                                305, 2; as apodosis, 302, 4.
-ī, gen. of 2d decl., nouns in -ius and -ium
                                                  – sent. in indir. disc., 316.
  in, 25, 1 and 2.
                                              Imperfect tense, 260; conative, 260, 3;
   - gen. of 4th decl., nouns in -us, 49, 1.
  - gen. of 5th decl., nouns, 52, 2.
                                                with jam, etc., 260, 4.
```

```
Imperfect subjy, in conditional sent, | inops, 70, 2.
  referring to the past, 304, 2.
                                             inquam, 134.
                                             Inseparable prepositions, 159, 3, N.
Impersonal verbs, 138; gen. with, 209;
  in passive, 256, 3; 187, II, b; with sub-
                                             instar, with gen., 198, 2; 58.
  stantive clauses of result, 297, 2; with
                                             Instrumental uses of abl., 213; 218 ff.
                                             Intensive pron., 88.
  infin., 327, 1; 330.
impetus, defective, 57, 4.
                                             Intensives (verbs), 155, 2.
Implied indir. disc., 323.
                                             inter to express reciprocal relation, 245.
imus, 'bottom of,' 241, 1.
                                             interest, constr., 210: 211.
                                             interior, 73, 1.
in, prep., 143.
in with abl. of time, 230, 2; 231.
                                             Interjections, 145.
-ina, 148, 5.
                                             Interrogative pronouns, oo.
Inceptives, 155, 1.
                                                 - sentences, 162; particles, 162, 2;
Inchoatives, 155, 1.
                                               omitted, 162, 2, d); in indir. disc., 315.
Indeclinable adjs., 70, 6; 80, 6.
                                             Intransitive verbs in passive, 256, 3: 187.
    - nouns, 58; gender of, 15, 3.
                                               II. b.
Indefinite pronouns, 91; 252.
                                             -īnus, 151, 2; 152, 1; 152, 3.
Indefinite second person, 280, 3; 356, 3;
                                             -iō, verbs of 3d conj., 109.
                                             ipse. 88; 249; as indir. reflexive, 249, 3.
  302, 2,
Indicative, 271.
                                             ipsīus and ipsorum, with possessive pro-
   - in apodosis of conditional sent. of
                                               nouns, 243, 3.
  3d type, 304, 3 a) and b).
                                             -ir, decl. of nouns in, 23,
indigeo, constr., 214, 1, N. 2.
                                             Irregular nouns, 42; verbs, 124 f.
indignus, with abl., 226, 2; with rel. clause
                                             is, 87; 247; as personal pron., 247, 2.
  of purpose, 282, 3.
                                             -is, 148, 6, b).
Indirect discourse, 313 f.; implied indir.
                                             -is, acc. plu., 3d decl., 37; 40.
  disc., 323: subordinate clauses in ind.,
                                               istaec, 87, footnote 3.
  314, 3.
- questions, 300; in conditional sent.
                                             iste, 87; 246, 4.
  of 3d type, 322, b.
                                             istic, 6, 4.
--- reflexives, 244, 2.
                                             istúc, 6, 4; 87, footnote 3.

    object, 187.

                                             ita, in answers, 162, 5.
inferum, inferior, 73, 2.
                                             itaque, 344, 1, a); accent of, 6, 6.
īnfimus, 241, 1.
                                             itdque, 6, 6.
Infinitive, in -ier, 116, 4, a: meaning of
                                             iter. 42. I.
  tenses in, 270; 326 ff.
                                             -itia, 149.
  - fut. perf. inf., 270, 4; periphrastic
                                            -ium, gen. of nouns in, 25, 2; ending of
  future, 270, 3.
                                               gen. plu., 3d decl., 37 f.; 39; 40; 147, 3,
  — without subj. acc., 326-328; 314, 5.
                                               b); 148, 2.
  — with subj. acc., 329-331.
                                             -ius, gen. and voc. sing. of nouns in, 25,
 1 and 2; of adjs., 63, a; 151, 2; 152, 2;
                                               152, 3; -ius for -ius, 362, 1, a).
--- denoting purpose, 326, N.
---- in abl. abs., 227, 3.
                                             -īvus, 151, 2.
  — in exclamations, 334.
   - historical inf., 335.
                                             j, I, 2; length of vowel before, 5, A, I, c).
īnfitiās, 182, 5.
Inflection, 11.
                                             jacio, 109, 2, a); compounds of, 9, 3;
Inflections, 11 ff.
                                             jam, etc., with present tense, 259, 4: with
ingēns, 73, 4.
injūriā, 220, 2.
                                               imperfect, 260, 4.
injussū, 57, 1; 219, 2.
                                             jecur, 42, 3.
inl-=ill-, 9, 2.
                                             jocō, 220, 2.
innīxus, 218, 3.
                                             jocus, plu. of, 60, 2.
```

māgnus, compared, 72. jubeō, 295, 1, a; 331, II. jūgerum, 59, 1. maledīcēns, 71, 5, a). Fupiter, 41. mālim, 280, 2, a, jūrātus, 114, 2. māllem, 280, 4. jūre, 220, 2. iūs est, with substantive clause, 297, 3. subjv., 296, I, a. jussū, 57, 1; 219, 2. Jussive subjv., 275; equiv. to a protasis, malus, comparison, 72. māne, 58. Manner, abl. of, 220. juvat, 175, 2, c). juvenis, 38, 2; 73, 4. $m\bar{a}s$, decl., 40, 1, d). Masculine, see Gender. k. I. I. L. Labial mutes, 2, 4, – stems. २**រ.** Lacedaemoni, 232, 4. laevum, 185, 2. maxumus, 9, I. lapis, decl., 33. Means, abl. of, 218. largior, 113. Length of syllables, 5, B. mēd, 84, 3. Length of vowels, 5, A. lentus, 151, 3. leō, decl., 35. melius est, 271, 1 b). Liber, decl., 23, 2. līberō, constr., 214, I, N. I. memor, 70, 2. liberta, libertabus, 21, 2, e). -men, -mentum, 147, 4. liberum, gen. plu., 25, 6, c). licet. 205. 6 and 8; with subjv., 308, a. licet, adversative, 309, 4. -met, 6, 3; 84, 2. Lingual mutes, 2, 4. linter, decl., 40. metuō, 296, 2. Liquids, 2, 5. - stems, 34. mī, voc. of meus, 86, 2. lis, decl., 40, 1, d). Litotes, 375, I. mīles, decl., 33. littera, litterae, 61. mīlitiae, 232, 2. Locative, 17, 1; in -ae, 21, 2, c); in -ī, mīlle, mīllia, 80, 5. 25, 5; syntax, 232; apposition with, 160, 4; loc. uses of abl., 213; 228 f. minimum, 77, 3. loco, locis, 228, 1, b. locus, plurals of, 60, 2. miror, 113. Long syllables, 5, B, 1. mīrus, 75, 2. - vowels, 5, A, 1. longius = longius quam, 217, 3. longum est, 271, 1, b. lubet, lubīdo, 9, 1. miseret, constr., 209. lūdī, 230, 1. lūx, 57, 7. magis, comparison with, 74. magnopere, compared, 77, 1.

male, comparison, 77, I. mālō, 130; with inf., 331, IV, and a; with mare, 39, 2; marī, 228, I, c). Masculine caesura, 368, 3 c. māteries, māteria, 59, 2, a). mātūrē, compared, 77, I. mātūrus, compared, 71, 3. māximē, compared with, 74. medius, 'middle of,' 241, I. Mediae (consonants), 2, 3, b), footnote 2, mei, as objective gen., 242, 2. memini, 133; constr., 206, I, a; 2, a. mēnsis, 38, 2, footnote I. mentem (in mentem venīre), 206, 3. Metrical close of sent., 350, 12. mī, dat., 84, I; voc., 86, 2. Middle voice, verbs in, 175, 2, d). minime, in answers, 162, 5, 6). minus = minus auam, 217, 3.miscere, with abl., 218, 5; with dat., 358, 3. misereor, with gen., 209, 2. miserēscō, with gen., 209, 2. modium, gen. plu., 25, 6, a). modo, in wishes and provisos, 310. moneo, 103; constr., 178, 1, d). months, decl., 68, 1; 70, 5, a); names. 37I, I.

```
Moods, 94, 2.
  - in independent sentences, 271 f.
  - in dependent clauses, 282 f.
morior, 109, 2, c).
Mora, 366. 1.
mōs, decl., 36; mōrēs, 61.
mos est, with substantive clause, 297, 3.
muliebre secus, 185, 1.
multum, 77, 3; compared, 77, 1.
multus, compared, 72; with another adj.,
  241. 3.
m\bar{u}s, decl., 40, 1, d).
mūtāre, with abl., 218, 5.
Mutes, 2, 3.
Mute stems, 30,
                    N.
n adulterīnum, 2, 6.
-nam, 90, 2, d.
Nasals, 2, 6.
Nasal stems, 35.
nātū, 57, 1; 73, 4, footnotes, 4, 5; 226, 1.
Natural gender, 14.
nātus, constr., 215.
nāvis, 41, 4.
-ne, 6, 3 f; 162, 2, c); 300, 1, b); -ne...
  an, 162, 4; in indir. double questions,
  300,4.
ne, in prohibitions, 276; with hortatory
  subjv., 274; with jussive, 275; with con-
  cessive, 278; with optative, 279; in
  substantive clauses, 295 f.
nē, 'lest,' 282, I; 296, 2.
ne non for ut after verbs of fearing, 296,
  2, 4.
nē . . . quidem, 347, 1.
nec, 341, 1, d); nec usquam, 341, 2, d).
necesse est, 295, 8.
necne. 162, 4.
nef as. 58.
Negatives, 347, 2; two negatives strength-
  ening the negation, 347, 2.
nēmō, 57, 3; 252, 6.
nequam, 70, 6; compared, 72.
neque, 341, 1, d); neque in purpose
  clauses, 282, 1, e.
nequeō, 137, I.
nequiter, compared, 77, 1.
nesciò quis, 253, 6; nesciò an, 300, 5.
Neuter, see Gender.
neuter, 66; 92, I.
neve (neu), in purpose clauses, 282, 1, d. | nuper, compared, 77, 1.
nihil, 58.
```

```
nihil est cur, quare, quin, 295, 7.
nisi, 306, 1 and 4.
nisi forte, 306, 5.
nisi sī, 306, 5.
nisi vērē, 306, 5.
nītōr, constr., 218, 3.
nix, decl., 40, 1, d).
noli, with inf., in prohibitions, 276, c.
nōlim, 280, 2, a.
nöllem, 280, 4.
nolo, 130; with inf., 331, IV and a; 270,
  2, a; with subjv., 296, 1, a.
nomen, decl., 35; nomen est, constr.,
Nominative, 17; 170; used for voc.,
  171, 1; nom. sing. lacking, 57, 6.
Nones, 371, 2, b).
n\bar{o}n, in answers, 162, 5, b); with poten.
  subjv., 280; with deliberative, 277.
non modo for non modo non, 343, 2, a.
nonne, 162, 2, a); 300, 1, b), N.
non quia, with ind., 286, I, c; with subjv.,
  286, I, b.
non quin, with subjv., 286, I. b.
non quod, with ind., 286, 1, c; with subjv.,
  286, 1, b.
nostri, as objective gen., 242, 2.
nostrum, as gen. of whole, 242, 2; as
  possessive gen., 242, 2, a.
Nouns, 12 ff.: 353: derivation of, 147 f.
    - in -is not always i-stems, 38, 1.
    - of agency, force, 353, 4.

 used in plu. only, 56.

 used in sing. only, 55.

    - used only in certain cases, 57.
    - indeclinable, 58.

    with change of meaning in plural, 61.

     syntax, 166 f.
     predicate, agreement of, etc., 167 f.
     appositives, agreement of, etc.,
  160 f.
Noun and adi, forms of the verb, 95, 2,
novi, as pres., 262, A.
novus, compared, 73, 3.
-ns, decl. of nouns in, 40, 1, c).
nulla causa est cur, quare, quin, 295, 7.
nūllus, 66; 57, 3; 92, I.
Number, 16; 94, 4.
num, 162, 2, b); 300, 1, b).
Numerals, 78 f.: peculiarities in use of
-nus, 151, 2,
```

O.

-o-, stems in, 23. o, instead of u in some words, 9, 1; 9, 4. Object, direct, 172 f.; indirect, 187 f. Objective gen., 200. Oblique cases, 17, 2. obliviscor, constr., 206, I, b; 2. ōđī, 133. olle, archaic for ille, 87. -olus (a, um), 148, 1. -om, later -um in 2d decl., 23. -on, Greek nouns, 2d decl. in, 27. Onomatopœia, 375, 4. opera, operae, 61. opinione with abl., 217, 4. opis, 57, 6; opēs, 61. oportet, 205, 6 and 8. oportuit, with pres. inf. 'ought to have.' 270, 2; with perf. inf., 270, 2, a. Optative subjv., 272; 279; substantive clauses developed from, 296. optimātēs, decl., 40, I, d). optumus, 9, 1. opus est, 218, 2. -or. 147. 2. Oratio Obliqua, 313 f. Ordinals, 78, 1; 79. oriundus, constr., 215, 2. ōrō, with acc., 178, 1, a). Orthography, peculiarities, 9. ortus, constr., 215. ōs, 57, 7. 05, 42. -os, later -us in 2d decl., 23. -ōs, later -or in 3d decl., 36, 1. -, -ōs, Greek nouns, 2d decl. in, 27. -ösus, 151, 3. Oxymoron, 375, 2.

Ρ.

paenitet, with gen., 209.
palam, 144, 2.
Palatal mutes, 2, 4.
Parasitic vowels, 7, 3.
parātus with infin., 333.
pariō, 109, 2, a).
pars, partēs, 61.
parte, 228, 1, b.
partem, 185, 1.
Participial stem, 97, III; formation, 119.
Participles, in -āns and -ēns, 70, 3; syntax, 336 ff.

```
Participles, fut. act., 119, 4; denoting
  purpose, 337, 4.
    perf. act., how supplied, 356, 2.
     perf. pass., 336, 3; as pres., 336, 5.
    pres. partic., 336, 2; with conative
  force, 336, 2, a.
    - perf. pass., with active meaning,
  114, 2; with noun equivalent to ab-
  stract noun, 337.6; with habeo, 337. 7.
    - with video, audio, facio, etc., 337, 3.
    - of deponents, 112, b.
Particles, 130 f.: 341 f.
Partitive apposition, 169, 5.
Partitive gen., so called, 201.
Parts of speech, 10.
parum, comparison, 77. I.
parvus, comparison, 72.
Passive, verbs in, with middle meaning.
  175, 2, d); 256; constr. of passive
  verbs of saying, etc., 332, and note:
  how supplied when missing, 356, 1.
patior, 109, 2, c); 113; with inf., 331, III.
Patrial adjs., 70, 5, \epsilon).
Patronyms, 148,/6.
paulum, 77, 3.
paulus, 9, 2.
pelagus, gender of, 26, 2.
penātēs, decl., 40, 1, d).
Pentameter, dactylic, 369.
Penult. 6. 2.
per with acc. of time and space, 181, 2.
Perfect active ptc., how supplied in Latin.
Perfect tense, 262; 268, I.
    - stem, 97, II; formation, 118.
     in -avī, -ēvī, -īvī contracted, 116, 1.
    - historical perf., 262.
     with force of pres., 262; 133, 2.
Periodic structure, 351, 5.
Periphrastic conj., 115; 269, 3; in con-
  ditional sentences of the 3d type, 304.
  3, b); in indir. disc., 322; in passive,
  337, 8, b, I.
    – fut. inf., 270, 3.
Persons, 95, 4; 2d sing. of indefinite
  subject, 356, 3.
Personal pronouns, 84; 242; as subject,
  omission of, 166, 2; as objective geni-
  tives, 242, 2.
   - endings, 96.
piget, with gen., 209.
Place whence, 229; place where, 228.
placitus, 114, 2.
```

```
plebes, 50, 2, d); plebi, 52, 2,
                                            Predicate nouns, 167: 168: in acc., 177:
Plenty and Want, verbs of, constr., 212.
                                              predicate nouns or adjs. attracted to
  cf. 218, 8.
                                              dat., 327, 2, a; to nom., 328, 2.
plēnus, 218, 8, a.
                                               - adjectives, 232, 2; 177, 2,
Pleonasm, 374, 3.
                                            Prepositions with acc., 141; with abl.,
plerdque, 6, 5.
                                              142; as adverbs, 144; inseparable
Pluperfect tense, 263; 287, 2; 288, 3;
                                              prepositions, 159, 3, N.; position,
  with imperfect meaning, 133, 2.
                                              350, 7; prepositional phrases as at-
Plural, 16; in 5th decl., 52, 4; of proper
                                              tributive modifiers, 353, 5; anastrophe
  names, 55, 4, a); of abstract nouns,
                                              of, 144, 3; 141, 2; 142, 3; usage with
  55, 4, c); nouns used in, only, 56;
                                              abl. of sep., 214 f.; with abl. of source,
  with change of meaning, 61; stylistic
                                            Present tense, 250; gnomic, 250, 1; con-
  use, 353, I; 2.
Pluralia tantum, 56; 81, 4, b).
                                              ative, 250, 2; historical, 250, 3; with
pl\bar{u}s, 70; 70, 4; = pl\bar{u}s quam, 217, 3.
                                              jam, etc., 259, 4.
Polysyndeton, 341, 4, b).
                                               - stem, 97, I; formation, 117.
poscō, 178, 1, a).

    perfect, 262.

Position of clauses, 351, 3.
                                            Price, indefinite, special words in gen.,
   of words, 348; 350; 351.
                                              203, 4.
Possessive dat., 190; gen., 198; con-
                                              - abl. of. 225.
  trasted with dat. of poss., 359, 1.
                                            prīdiē, with gen., 201, 3, a; with acc.,
Possessive pronouns, 86; 243; = objec-
                                              144, 2.
 tive gen., 243, 2; position of, 243,
                                            Primary tenses, see Principal tenses.
                                            primus, 'first who,' 241, 2.
possum, 126; with present infin. 'I might,'
                                            princeps, decl., 31.
 271, 1, a).
                                            Principal parts, 99; list, p. 251.
post, 144, 1; in expressions of time.
                                               - tenses, 258 f.
                                            prior, compared, 73, 1.
 357, I.
                                            prius, compared, 77, 1.
Post-positive words, 343, 1, c).
posteāquam, 287, 1; 4.
                                            priusquam, with ind., 291; with subjv.,
                                              292; separated, 291.
posterus, posterior, 73, 2.
postquam, 287; separated, 287, 3; with
                                            procul, 144, 2.
 imperf. ind., 287, 4; with subjv., 287, 5.
                                            Prohibitions, method of expressing,
postrēmus. 241. 2.
                                              276.
postrīdiē, with gen., 201, 3, a.
                                            Prohibitive subjv., 276.
                                            Prolepsis, 374, 5.
postulō, constr., 178, 1, a.
Potential subjv., 272; 280.
                                            Pronominal adjs., 253.
potior, with gen., 212, 2; with abl., 218, 1;
                                            Pronouns, 82 f.; personal, omission of, as
 in gerundive constr., 339, 4.
                                              subject, 166, 2; syntax, 242 f.; per-
                                              sonal, 242 f.; possess., 243 f.; reflex.,
  —, adj., 73, 1.
potius, compared, 77, 1.
                                              244 f.; reciprocal, 245 f.; demonstra-
                                              tive. 246 f.; relative, 250 f.; indef.,
potui, poteram, in apodosis of conditional
 sent. of 3d type, 304, 3, a); in indir.
                                              252 f.; position, 350, 5; 355.
 disc., 322, c.
                                            Pronunciation, Roman, 3.
potui, with pres. inf. = 'could have,'
                                            prope, compared, 77, 1.
                                            Proper names, abbreviated, 373.
  270, 2,
potuerim, in dependent apodosis, 322, c.
                                               - nouns. 12. I.
                                            propior, compared, 73, 1; with acc., 141,
pōtus, 114, 2.
praesens, 125.
prānsus, 114, 2.
                                            proprius, with dat., 204, 2, a; with gen.,
preci, -em, -e, 57, 5, a.
                                              204, 2.
Predicate, 163.
                                            Prosody, 360 f.
  — gen., 198, 3; 203, 5.
                                            prösum, 125, N.
```

```
Protasis, 301; denoting repeated action,
 302, 3; without sī, 305; of indef. 2d
  sing., 302, 2.
Provisos, 310.
proxime, -us, with acc., 141, 3.
prūdēns, 70.
-pte, 86, 3.
pudet, with gen., 200.
puer, decl., 23.
Purpose, how denoted, 282; 338, 3; 339,
  2, 6; 340, 1; 191; 337, 4.
Purpose clauses, 282; independent of
  principal verb, 282, 4; 339, 6; 340, 1.
-qu-, both letters consonants, 74, a.
quaero, 300, I, b), N.
quaeso, 137, 2.
Quality, gen., 203; 224, 3; abl., 224.
quam, in comparisons, 217, 2; with su-
  perl., 240, 3.
quam sī, 307, 1.
quam ut, with subjv., 284, 4.
quamquam, with ind., 309, 2; with subjv.,
  309.6; = 'and yet,' 309.5.
quamvis, with subjv., 309, 1; 6; denot-
  ing a fact, 309, 6.
quando, 286, 3, b.
Quantity, 5.
 — of syllables, 5, B; 363 f.
--- of vowels, 5, A; 362; in Greek
  words, 365.
quasi, 307, 1.
quatio, 109, 2, a).
-que, accent of word preceding, 6, 3; 6
  6; 341; I, b); 2, a); 4, c).
queō, 137, 1.
Questions, word, sentence, 162 f.; rhetor-
  ical, 162, 3; double (alternative), 162,
  4; indirect, 300; questions in indir.
  disc., 315.
qui, rel., 89; interr., 90; indef., 91; for
  quis in indir, questions, 90, 2, b; with
  nē, sī, nisi, num, 91, 5; in purpose
  clauses, 282, 2; abl., 90, 2, a.
quia, in causal clauses, 286, 1.
quicum, 89.
quicumque, 91, 8.
quidam, 91; syntax, 252, 3.
quidem, post-positive, 347, 1.
quilibet, 91.
quin, in result clauses, 284, 3; in sub-
 stantive clauses, 295, 3; 298; = qu\bar{i} - qu\bar{i}
```

non in clauses of characteristic, 282, 4: with ind., 281, 3; in indir. disc., 322 and a; nulla causa est quin, 295, 7. quinam, 90, 2, d. Quintilis (= Fūlius), 371. quippe qui, 283, 3. Ouirités, decl., 40, 1, d. quis, indef., 91; interr., 90; 90, 2, c; 252, 1; nescio quis, 253, 6; with ne, se, nisi, num, QI, 5. quis = quibus, 89. quisnam, 90, 2, d. quispiam, 91. quisquam, 91; 252, 4. quisque, 91; 252, 5. quisquis, QI, 8. quīvīs, 91. quō, in purpose clauses, 282, 1, a. quoad, with ind., 293; with subjv., 293. III, 2. quod, in causal clauses, 286, I; in substantive clauses, 299; 331, V, a; 'as regards the fact,' 299, 2. quod audierim, 283, 5; quod sciam, 283, 5. quod sī, 185, 2. quom, 9, 1. quō minus, 295, 3. quoniam, 286, 1. quoque, post-positive, 347. -quus, decl. of nouns in, 24. R. rapiö, 109, 2, a). rāstrum, plurals of, 60, 2. Reciprocal pronouns, 85, 2; 245; cf. 253, 3. Reduplication in perf., 118, 4, a); in pres., 117, 7. rēfert, constr., 210; 211, 4. Reflexive pronouns, 85; 244; 249, 3. regō, 105. ržī, 362, I, b). rēiciō, 362, 5. Relative clauses, 311; 312; characteristic, 283. - conditional sentences, 312, 2. pronouns, 89; 250 f.; = Eng. demonstrative, 251, 6; agreement, 250; fondness for subordinate clauses, 355. – clauses with dīgnus, indīgnus, idōneus, 282, 3. — of purpose, 282, 2; of result, 284, 2.

```
Relative, taking acc. and infin. in indir. | Sentences, classification, 160 f.; simple
   disc., 314, 4.
                                                and compound, 164; sentence-struct-
reliqui, 253, 5.
                                                ure, 351; sentence questions, 162, 2.
rēmex, decl., 32.
                                              sententiā, 220, 3.
reminiscor, constr., 206, 2.
                                              Separation, dat. of, 188, 2, d); gen., 212,
reposco, constr., 178, 1, a).
                                                3: abl., 214.
requies, requiem, requietem, 59, 2, c).
                                              Sequence of tenses, 267; 268.
rēs, decl., 51.
                                              sequor, 113.
Result, acc. of, 173, B; 176; clauses
                                              servos, 24.
   of, 284; 297; in dependent apodosis,
                                              sēsē. 85.
   322, and a: sequence of tense in.
                                              Sextīlis (= Augustus), 371.
   268, 6.
                                              Short syllables, 5, B, 2; vowels, 5, A, 2.
revertor, 114, 3.
                                              sī, with indir, questions, 300, 3; in pro-
Rhetorical questions, 162, 3; 277, a; in
                                                tasis, 301; omitted, 305.
  indir. disc., 315, 2.
                                              signifer, decl., 23, 2,
                                              silentiö, 220, 2.
Rhotacism, 8, 1; 36, 1.
rogātū, 219, 2.
                                              silvestris. 68. a.
rogō, constr., 178, 1, c); 178, 1, a).
                                              similis, with dat., 204, 3; with gen., 204,
Roman pronunciation, 3.
                                                3; comp., 71, 4.
Root, 17, 3, footnote 1.
                                              sī minus, 306; 2.
-rs, decl. of nouns in, 40, 1, c).
                                              simul, 144, 2.
rū v. 229, I. b.
                                              simul ac, 287, 1; 2,
                                              sī non, 306, I and 2.
rūrī, 228, I, c.
rūr, 182, I, b; 57, 7.
                                              sīn, 306, 3.
                                              Singular, second person indefinite, 280.
                                                3; 356, 3; 302, 2.
-s, decl. of monosyllables in, preceded
                                              sino, with inf., 331, III.
  by one or more consonants, 40, 1, \delta).
                                              Smelling, verbs of, constr., 176, 5.
s-stems, 36.
                                              Soft consonants, 2, 3, b), footnote 2.
saler, 65; comparison, 73, 3.
                                              socer, decl., 23, 2.
                                             socium, gen. plu., 25, 6, c).
sacte, compared, 77, 1.
sā., 57, 7; sălēs, 61.
                                             sol, 57, 7.
sa.ūbris, 68, 3.
                                             soleō, 114, 1.
                                              solus, 66; solus est qui with subjv., 283, 2.
savūtāris, 73, 4.
salvē, salvēte, 137, 4.
                                              Sonant consonants, 2, 3, b), footnote 2.
Samnītēs, decl., 40, 1, d).
                                              Sõracte, 39, 2.
sānē, in answers, 162, 5.
                                              Sounds, classification, 2.
sapiō, 109, 2, a).
                                                  - of the letters, 3.
scio, quod sciam, 283, 5.
                                             Source, abl., 215.
scribere ad aliquem, 358, 2.
                                             Specification, abl. of, 226.
sē, 244.
                                             spěi, 362, I, b.
Second conj., 103; decl., 23; peculiarities,
                                             Spelling, see Orthography.
  25; second person indefinite, 280, 3;
                                             Spirants, 2, 7.
  356, 3; 302, 2.
                                             Spondaic verses, 368, 2.
Secondary tenses, see Historical tenses.
                                             sponte suā, 220, 3.
secus, compared, 77, 1.
                                             spontis, -e, 57, 2, b.
secus (virile secus), 185, 1; 58.
                                             Stem, 17, 3.
sēd, 85, 3.
                                                —, verb, 97, 117.
sed, 343, 1, a).
                                             Style, hints on, 352 f.
sedīle, decl., 39.
                                             su = sv, 3, 3.
Semi-deponent verbs, 114.
                                             sub, with acc. and abl., 143.
Semivowels, 2, 8,
                                             Subject, 163; nom., 166; acc., 184; sub-
```

ject acc. of inf., 184; omitted, 314, 5.

senex, 42; compared, 73, 4.

Subjective gen., 100. Subjunctive, tenses in, 94, 3. - in independent sentences, 272; by attraction, 324; tenses of, 266 f.; method of expressing future time in. jussive. 269; volitive (hortatory, prohibitive, deliberative, concessive), taedet, 200. 273 f.; optative (wishes), 279; potential, 280; in clauses of purpose, 282; of characteristic, 283; of result, 284; of cause, 286; temporal clauses with postquam, posteāquam, 287, 5; temporal clauses with cum, 288-200; with antequam and priusquam, 292; with 40, I, e). dum, donec, quoad, 293, III, 2; substantive clauses, 204 f.; indir. questēd. 84. 3. tions, 300; in apodosis of first type conditions, 302, 4; jussive subjunctive as protasis of condition, 305, 2; with tener, 64. velut, tamquam, etc., 307; with necesse est, oportet, etc., 295, 6 and 8; with licet, 308, a; 309, 4; with quamvis, quamquam, etsī, cum, 'although,' 300 f. sublatus, p. 99, footnote. subm-=summ-, 9, 2.Subordinate clauses, 165. Substantive clauses, 294 f.; without ut, 205, 8; of result, 297; introduced by auod. 200. *subter*, 143, 1. Suffixes, 17, 3, footnote 1; 147 f. $su\bar{i}$, 85; as objective gen., 244, 2; = possessive gen., 244, 2. -tim, 157, 2. sum, 100. summus, 'top of,' 241, I. sunt qui, with subjv., 283, 2. suopte, suapte, 86, 3. supellex, 42, 2, -tinus, 154. super, 143, I. -tiō, 147, 3. superus, compared, 73, 2. Superlative lacking, 73, 4; force of, 240, 2. Supine, 340. Surd consonants, 2, 3, a), footnote 1. trāditur, trāditum est, 332, N. sūs, decl., 41. trāns, constr. of verbs compounded with. sustuli, p. 99, footnote. 179. suus, 86, 1; 244; suus quisque, 244, 4, a. Transitive verbs, 174. Syllaba anceps, 366, 10. trēs, 80, 3. Syllables, 4; quantity of, 5, B. tribus, decl., 49, 3. Trimeter verses, 366, 11. Synapheia, 367, 6. trīnī, 81, 4, b). Synaeresis, 367, 1. Synchysis, 350, 11, d). triumvir, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, b). Trochee, 366, 2. Syncope, 7, 4; 367, 8.

Synecdochical acc., 180. Synizesis, 367, 1. Syntax, 160 f. Systole, 367, 3. Т. talentum, gen. plu., 25, 6, a). tamen, 343, I, f. tametsī, 309, 2. tamquam, tamquam sī, 307. tanton. 6. 4. -tās, 149; gen. -tātis, decl. of nouns in Tasting, verbs of, constr., 176, 5. Temporal clauses, 287 ff. temporis (id temporis), 185, 2. Tenses, 94, 3; 257 ff.; of inf., 270; of inf. in indir. disc., 317; of participles, 336; of subjv., 266; sequence of, 266; in indir. disc., 317; 318. Tenues (consonants), 2, 3, a), footnote 1. tenus, position, 142, 3. Terminations, 17, 3. -ternus, 154. terrā marīque, 128, 1, c. terrestris, 68, 3. Tetrameter verses, 366, 11. Thesis, 366, 6. Third conj., 105; 109 f.; decl., 28 i.; gender in, 43 f. Time, at which, 230; during which, 181; 231, 1; within which, 231. timeo ne and ut, 296, 2. Tmesis, 367, 7. -tor, use of nouns in, 353, 4. tōtus, 66; 228, I, b). trabs, decl., 31.

utraque, 6, 5.

```
-trum, 147, 4.
tū. 84.
-tūdō, 149.
tui, as objective gen., 242, 2.
-tūra. 147, 3, a).
tūs, 57, 7.
-tus, 147, 3; 151, 4.
tussis, decl., 38.
tūte, tūtemet, 84, 2,
                    U.
u, instead of i in some words, 9, 1; in-
  stead of o, 9, 1; 9, 4.
u, becomes v, 367, 4.
ŭ-stems, 48.
\bar{u}-stems, 41.
- ū, dat. sing., 4th decl., 49, 2.
ubi, with ind., 287, 1; 2; with gen., 201, 3.
-ubus, dat. plu., 4th decl., 49, 3.
ūllus, 66.
ulterior, compared, 73, 1.
ultimus, 241, 2.
-ulus, 150, 2; (a, um), 148, 1.
-um, 1st decl., gen. plu. in, 21, 2, d); 2d
  decl., 25, 6,
-undus, -undi, in gerund and gerundive.
  116, 2,
unus, 66; 92, 1; unus est qui, with
  subjv., 283, 2.
-us, neuter nouns of 2d decl. in, 26, 2.
ūsque ad, 141, 1.
ūsus est, with abl., 218, 2.
ut, temporal, 287, 1; 2; ut, uti, in pur-
  pose clauses, 282: in result clauses.
  284; in substantive clauses, 295 f.;
  substantive clauses without, 295, 8;
  with verbs of fearing, 206, 2.
ut n\bar{e} = n\bar{e}, 282, I, b.
ut non instead of ne, 282, I, c; in clauses
  of result, 284, 297.
ut qui, introducing clauses of character-
  istic, 283, 3.
ut sī. 307. I.
uter, 66; 92, 1.
ūter, decl., 40, 1, d).
utercumque, 92, 2.
uterlibet, 92, 2.
uterque, 92, 2; 355, 2.
utervis, 92, 2.
ūtilius est, 271, 1, b).
utinam, with optative subj., 279, I and 2.
ūtor, with abl., 218, 1; in gerundive
  constr., 339, 4.
```

```
utrum ... an, 162, 4; 300, 4.
v, I, I.
v. becomes u. 367. 5.
vale, 363, 2, 6).
Value, indefinite, in gen., 203, 2.
vannus, gender of, 26, 1, b).
vās, 59, I.
-ve, 6, 3; 342, 1, b).
vel, 342, I, b); with superl., 240, 3.
velim, 280, 2, a.
vellem, 280, 4.
velut, velut sī, 307, I.
venter, decl., 40, 1, d).
Verbs, 94 f.; personal endings, 96; de-
  ponent, 112; archaic and poetic forms,
  116, 4; irregular, 124; defective, 133;
  impersonal, 138; with substantive
  clauses of result, 297, 2; omission of,
  166, 3: transitive, 174: used abso-
  lutely, 174, a; passives used as mid-
  dles, 175, 2, d); of smelling and
  tasting, constr., 176, 5; not used in
  passive, 177, 3, a; intransitives im-
  personal in passive, 187, II, b; 256,
  3; compounded with preps., constr.,
  187, III; of judicial action, constr.,
  208: derivation of, 155 f.; inceptive
  or inchoative, 155, 1; frequentative or
  intensive, 155, 2; desiderative, 155,
  3; denominative, 156; agreement of,
  254 f.
Verb stems, 97; formation of, 117 f.
vereor, 113; 296, 2.
Vergilius, gen. of, 25, 1.
vērē, 343, 1, g); in answers, 162, 5.
Verse, 366, 3.
Verse-structure, 366 f.
Versification, 361.
versus, 141, 2.
vērum, 343, I, b).
vescor, with abl., 218, I.
vesper, decl., 23, 2.
vesperi, 232, 2.
vestrī, 242, 2.
vestrum, as gen. of whole, 242, 2; as
  possessive gen., 242, 2, a.
veto, with inf., 331, II.
vetus, 70; compared, 73, 3.
vī, 220, 2.
vicem, 185, 1; vicis, vice, 57, 5, 6.
```

victor, decl., 34. viden, 6, 4. video, with pres. partic., 337, 3. vigil, decl., 34. violenter, 77, 4, a. vir, decl., 23. with, 25, 6, b). virile secus, 185, I. virus, gender of, 26, 2. vīs, decl., 41. Vocative case, 17: 19, 1: 171: in -i for -ie. 25, 1; position of, 350, 3. Voiced sounds, 2, 3, a. Voiced consonants, 2, 3, b). Voiceless consonants, 2, 3, a. Voices, 94; 256; middle voice, 256, I. Volitive subjunctive, 272 f. volnus, 9, 1. volo, 130; with inf., 331, IV and a; 270, 2, a; with subjv., 296, 1, a. volt, 9, 1. voltus, 9, 1. voluntate, 220, 2, -volus, comparison of adjs. in, 71, 5. Vowels, 2, 1; sounds of the, 3, 1; quantity of, 5, A; contraction of, 7, 2; par- | s, I, I; 2, 9. asitic, 7, 3.

Vowel changes, 7. vulgus, gender of, 26, 2, -vum, -vus, decl. of nouns in, 24.

w.

-, gen. plu. of nouns compounded Wish, clauses with dum, etc., expressing a, 310. Wishes, subjunctive in, 279; see Optative subjunctive. Word-formation, 146 f. Word-order, 348 f. Word questions, 162, 1.

X.

x, 2, 9. -x, decl. of monosyllables in, preceded by one or more cons., 40, \mathbf{I} , $\mathbf{\delta}$).

Y.

y, I, I. 'You,' indefinite, 356, 3; 280, 3; 302, 2.

Z.

Zeugma, 374, 2, a).

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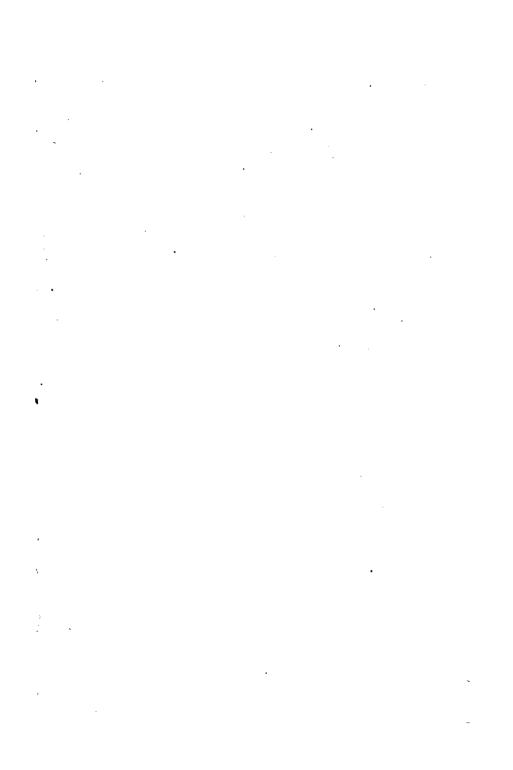
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